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ABSTRACT

The teaching of English as a second language (ESL) to adults and students in the United Kingdom is examined with respect to teacher training program design. Articles are devoted to ESL teacher training programs at the University of Edinburgh, the University College of North Wales at Bangor, the University of Lancaster, and the University of Manchester. In addition, the following articles are included: (1) "Micro-teaching in TEFL Teacher Training" by Geoffrey Broughton, (2) "Teacher-training at ELTI: The Language Laboratory Course" by Ann Hayes, (3) "Why Not a B. Ed (TEFL)?" by Ian Dunlop, and (4) "Teacher Training: In Progress" by Ted Rodgers of the University of Hawaii. A selection from the proceedings of a conference on training in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) includes: (1) "Notes on Educational/Vocational Aspects in EFL Diploma Courses," (2) "Course Design and Methodology," and (3) "Language Skills, Study Skills and the Diploma Course." Finally, in "Creating a Climate for Communication in the Classrcom," Maria Sticchi Damiani discusses various aspects of teacher-student communication in the ESL classroom, and their relation to successful learning and rewarding teaching. (JB)

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104-Developments in the Training of Teachers of English

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ERRATUM

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P31: the following lines should be on p32 as these are members of the Institute for English Language Education:

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INTRODUCTION

The time has long since passed when a teacher-training course might remain in being essentially unchanged for a generation or more. Serious training of TEFL teachers began to proliferate in Britain one generation ago with the creation in the early sixties of several new university departments. As might be expected, much has changed since then and pace of change, here as elsewhere, becomes more rapid all the time. It is all too easy to get out of date. One may learn, in basic terms, from our annual *Academic Courses* or the *Brief List* what the universities and other teaching institutions nowadays have to offer. A more detailed picture might give a better idea.

In the present issue we endeavour to provide this, though such is the scale of activity, that what is within these covers must perforce be no more than a sampling, which however is, we hope, not unrepresentative of the general flavour.

The first article by Norman Whitney of Ealing College of Higher Education raises interesting and fundamental questions about the direction and content of the courses on offer.

Then we have the detailed accounts from various university institutions: Pit Corder on Edinburgh, Christopher Candlin on Lancaster, Carl James on Bangor, Gerry Abbott on Manchester and Geoffrey Broughton on London. Not to be left behind, the British Council through the pen of Ann Hayes tells about teacher training in its English Language Teaching Institute.

The remaining part of this issue is devoted to articles on questions connected with our subject. We include the contributions Henry Widdowson, Carl James, and Mike Wallace made at the Conference on TEFL Training held at the University of London, Institute of Education, in April 1978. Ian Dunlop argues the case for a B.Ed (TEFL). Finally two articles from overseas contributors, Maria Damiani and Ted Rogers, which in their different ways invite us to think about some of the considerations teacher-training has to have in mind.

There is, we realise, much more to be said than appears in this issue. As will be seen, we now include "Letters from readers". We shall be delighted to hear from you.

Norman H Pettersen, ETIC, The British Council

ELT Documents is now including a correspondence section. Comments arising from articles in the current issues will therefore be most welcome. Please address comments to ETIC, The British Council, 10 Spring Gardens, London SW1A 2BN.

COURSES IN THE UK AND THE FOREIGN TEACHER OF EFL/ESL:
Is the supply varied enough for the demand?

Norman F Whitney, Ealing College of Higher Education, London

The current ETIC publication *Academic Courses in Great Britain* lists no less than eighty courses 'relevant to the teaching of English to speakers of other languages'. Still more such courses are listed in the British Council leaflet *Teacher Training/Teacher Refresher Courses in English as a Second or Foreign Language.*[2] In addition to all these, there are a growing number of short courses being held all over the UK, and at different times throughout the year, but especially in the summer. Many of these short coures, like most study programmes related – however loosely – to EFL/ESL are heavily subscribed to by foreign teachers of English.

All of this could suggest that in the UK, the provision of courses in which foreign teachers of EFL/ESL have an interest is peculiarly rich and varied. After all, amongst British applicants for such courses, it is well known that different institutions have different entry requirements; that courses vary both in the options they offer and in what is often referred to as their 'intensiveness'; and that, not surprisingly, the different qualifications at the end of the courses are neither equally useful nor equally prestigious.

But for foreign applicants, the picture may seem somewhat less varied. In the first place, many foreign applicants do not know enough about higher education in Britain to be able to discriminate between the characteristics of different courses. Secondly, many foreign applicants do not actually choose the course that they will attend, since the choice is often made by agencies whose job it is to match students with courses in the best way possible. And thirdly, even if an individual foreign teacher were to make such a choice, he or she might be forgiven for feeling that the vast majority of the courses are of one type only. This would be particularly so for the teacher who had access only to the ETIC list of eighty courses. Most of these are at least one academic year long – and therefore are both and expensive and costly in terms of potential domestic and professional disruption. Also, many of the courses are perforce theoretical rather than practical. Finally, since a large number of the courses have a mixed intake policy, it would be difficult for most foreign teachers to decide whether staff on the course would be able, or would even wish to address themselves to the needs and interests of particular teaching situations.

In fact, as things stand at the moment, applicants for a lot of these courses might well be forgiven for believing that, from their point of view, the two major distinctive features of any particular course are its location, and the qualification it leads to. Students, like anybody else, have feelings about where and how they want to live – and in the case of EFL/ESL related courses in the

UK, these feelings have to be set in the context of discussions about courses which seem to offer something rather than nothing, certificates rather than just something, diplomas rather than certificates, MAs rather than diplomas, and so on. One can only sympathise with the foreign student who, having made the decision to come to the UK for one year, seeks the most prestigious reward he or she can find. And since there seems to be a growing number of countries requiring their teachers of EFL/ESL to have British or American postgraduate qualifications, even the longest, most academic, and least practical sort of course will survive. At some time in the future, the different individuals and organisations responsible may well want to decide whether this state of affairs is, in the famous phrase, 'a good thing'.

It is perfectly true that for many foreign teachers, the year long, basically academic and somewhat traditional postgraduate type of course has many attractive features. Courses of this type provide a welcome opportunity to stand back from actual classroom teaching, in favour of a chance to study in some detail current developments in both the theory and practice of EFL and its related subjects. Also, contact with students and teachers from other parts of the world makes for useful exchanges of information, stimulating discussion, and in some cases, even for valuable exercises in syllabus design, materials, preparation and so on. And for a small number of foreign teachers, a year long course can turn out to be the start of longer, more absorbing and more rewarding research projects. All in all, therefore, the traditional type of course does much to enhance the status of EFL as a whole, and it contributes significantly to the academic and the professional development of many individual foreign teachers.

On the other hand, there are many disadvantages in being a foreign teacher on such a course, especially if the teacher is in a minority of non-native speakers, or is the only person from a particular country, or has little previous experience of the course content or methodology. A varied intake can actually militate against the legitimate interests of any individual course member, either because the staff are attending to some other majority interest, or because they are meticulously attempting to address themselves to too many separate interests all at once. Naturally, the staff on mixed intake courses cannot be expected to know about the backgrounds of every student on a course, and from a foreign teacher's point of view, the staff's knowledge about particular teaching situations might be considered partial, superficial, or out of date. Also, foreign and British teachers alike cannot afford to assume that all staff on such courses even have any commitment to EFL as such at all. For although many courses in the UK are listed as being 'relevant' to EFL, and although many of them are populated by EFL teachers, they are in some cases staffed by people whose experience of and interest in EFL is not great. This can hit the foreign teacher (as distinct from the foreign 'student') particularly hard, especially if he finds that a lot of time has to be devoted to the study of the more explicitly theoretical aspects of EFL, for example, linguistic theory, phonetics, and psycholinguistics.

Inevitably, therefore, foreign teachers on such courses can find themselves under terrific pressure. This may express itself in several ways, but particularly in a desire to do well on the course (that is, to get good marks, and to pass the examination) rather than in a desire to examine particular ways in which the course content contributes or fails to contribute to the well being of their own students. Often, the foreign teacher has to trade a temporary sense of alienation in favour of a belief that, in the long term, the course, somehow, 'helps' – if not soon, then perhaps in two or three years' time. But in the short term, the teacher very properly not only expends a lot of energy on the specifically academic bias in some of the course content, but also spends a lot of time doing necessarily general and large scale work on the supposedly more practical subjects like methodology and syllabus design. In these contexts, it is very hard for methodology to focus on much more than the discussion of principles, or on the notion that teaching is a series of separate technical skills, simply because of the lack of opportunity for teaching practice and observation. Conversely, it can be quite easy for even the most uninfluential of teachers in a particular educational system to produce very good, but very grand syllabus designs which, except in some very small scale way, stand little chance of being implemented or even appreciated. Ironically enough, there are even some foreign teachers who do so well on elitist, postgraduate UK courses that, on returning home, they find themselves for some time estranged from the very system that promoted their entry to Britain in the first place.

Admittedly, this amounts to a rather negative view of the potential usefulness to foreign teachers of many of the courses available to them. But in fairness to foreign teachers, these courses can turn out to be crucial to their professional lives. Also, in fairness to the staff on such courses, all the implications of EFL, teacher education and teacher training may not be their proper concern. Whatever the case, it is clear that the need for and interest in such courses is great and growing. It follows from this that a series of well planned, prestigious alternatives to the year long, academically oriented mixed intake type of course would be well worth considering by everyone concerned.

Existing alternatives to the traditional type of course are many and various. Typically, these are presented to foreign teachers as short, practical courses, often including a language development component. The intake may be mixed: that is, students and teachers of all types are enrolled, or, the intake may be selective: that is, the course may enrol only those teachers with a specific interest (eg 'functional approaches to language teaching'), or only teachers from one sort of institution in many different countries (eg teacher trainers), or only teachers from one educational system (eg the Italian, or the French). Usually, courses of this type offer no particular qualification, at least none that corresponds to the various certificates, diplomas and higher degrees of longer courses, although many short courses award attendance certificates of some sort, or are considered to be of some professional value by schools and colleges that sponsor

teachers. This is particularly true of those cases in which there is a long tradition of teachers from country X attending a well established short course in place Y, and in those countries where EFL or teacher training as such is not readily available.

Notwithstanding the difficulties with which short courses of all kinds are beset, they do provide tremendous opportunities for everyone involved in them, and their potential seems to be very largely unrealised. First, though, the difficulties. From a foreign teacher's point of view, any short course, particularly one with a mixed intake, may leave a lot to be desired. Contact with native speakers, the language development component, the practical teaching content, and usefulness to career progress may all be minimal. This is very frustrating for the teacher who has had to forego a summer vacation for such a course. And from a staff point of view, a short course often has neither the resources nor the rewards of longer, more substantial contact with students on traditional courses.

However, for staff who are interested in teacher education as such, many short courses – especially those with a selective intake – offer the chance of being professionally direct, specific, effective. Peter Strevens has written of the need 'to lead us toward a better guess as to what is actually possible in the practical circumstances of particular countries',[3] and, in the same vein, Karl Diller suggests that 'We can avoid the ad hoc variation of eclecticisim by developing a set of principles which guide our choices of appropriate methods for individual learning styles, teaching styles, or special situations'.[4] Indeed, it is only reasonable that foreign teachers should expect British 'specialists' to know enough about the practical circumstances of particular countries for UK courses to be as meaningful and as immediately useful as possible. And though British specialists have made a great virtue of electicism, there is no reason why this virtue should not attach itself to the organisation of a whole range of course provision which, perhaps through some unit credit system, should not be every bit as rewarding and as prestigious as the traditional courses that such provision would complement.

This is not the place to suggest ways of describing the practical teaching circumstances of particular countries. Nor is it possible in such a short space to devise sets of principles for the design of a series of teacher education and training provision. In any case, setting up an individual course is in many ways a matter of common sense on the one hand, and of a possible redirecting of resources on the other. In a small number of cases, this process may also involve a switch in organisational procedures, and in values and priorities. For example, for an institution to set up a series of short, practically oriented selective intake courses requires not only the relevant amount of administrative and professional capacity, but also a fair degree of commitment to the idea that such courses are as intrinsically worthwhile as longer, more academically oriented mixed intake courses. Unfortunately, given the constraints under which many institutions must operate, such a commitment can be rather difficult to express.

But, it is not as though there were no starting points or precedents for such interests. A good deal is known about the EFL situation in specific countries, and there is a long tradition of short courses being supported by British specialists all over the world. From these experiences alone it would be possible to initiate a string of three phase operations in which the teaching of EFL in the secondary school system of a particular country or region might be very carefully described.

An initial pre-course needs analysis phase benefits both UK staff and the teachers with whom they will be working. After all, unless staff know and understand the details of syllabus design, the procedures for materials selection, and the attitudes towards methodologies and examinations within an individual educational system, they are hardly in a position to select the best syllabus, materials, methodologies and examinations for their **own** teaching. Similarly, until a group of foreign teachers has had the opportunity to establish whether or not UK specialists are either able or willing to consider its needs, the group cannot be sure that its investment in time and money will pay off. In short courses, certainty about as many points as possible is highly desirable, since these courses depend very much for their success on the inclusion of what is useful and on the elimination of what is not.

In all honesty, it has to be said pre course work of this kind presents great problems, particularly if staff find that their 'specialisms' turn out not to be wanted, or if they genuinely feel that the teachers they meet are ill equipped to share in course preparation. Nevertheless, the second phase of the operation, the course itself, can only derive benefit from an identification of such problems as early as possible. In all probability, any course will turn out to be a rational permutation or selection of the usual elements in such work. These include:

Language Development
Syllabus Design
Curriculum Studies
Materials Preparation
Language Teaching Methodology
ESP/EAP/EST ...
Study Skills
Applied Linguistics/Phonology/Psycholinguistics ...
Current Developments
Visits/Social Events

Each one of these can be broken down into several parts, and different emphasis given to any one of them. The point is, that in this kind of work, it is essential not to crowd the course load, but to stage manage its organisation in relation to what is known about the teachers themselves and their students. Also, it should eventually prove possible to stagger any individual teacher's interests over a series of modular inputs, thus allowing the teacher to concentrate on one thing at a

time. This would free many teachers of the fear of being out of date, and it would also prevent other teachers from re-entering their educational system after one year's absence, and trying to turn it upside down.

In the third, post-course implementation phase, it is possible to help foreign teachers adapt their accumulating insights to their work. This process is, to say the least, instructive, since it puts a high premium on the 'advice' given by UK specialists, and since it often reveals alarming anomalies – when it emerges, for example, that the teacher who performed spectacularly well in the micro teaching sessions on the course is much less impressive in the classroom, or when it appears that the teacher who wilted under the glare of micro teaching is in practice a star. Another spin-off of post-course work affects materials production and selection. Joint efforts by foreign teachers and by experienced UK staff stand a good chance of designing materials that recognise the needs and constraints of specific educational systems, yet seize the advantages of having access to a constant supply of informed native speakers of English. Furthermore, implementation analysis allows UK staff to observe at close quarters one of the ironies of the profession: the process by which, once 'qualified', the classroom teacher is suddenly promotable to something beyond the classroom, usually to some administrative or teacher training post. Of course, this process is not in itself undesirable or very surprising. But a closer study of its operation would allow institutions and specialists in the UK to make provision for the needs of educational systems as a whole: that is, for their policy making, administrative, and teacher training sections as well as for their teachers alone.

Three phase work of the sort outlined here certainly supports the idea that practical, vocational study is a desirable and necessary complement to theoretical, academic study. Also, the implication is that institutions with any interest in EFL might agree that any long, traditional sort of course is bound to be academic and theoretical, and, conversely, that any practical, vocational provision must take the form of short, carefully selected inputs to controlled intakes. It is very true that many foreign teachers of EFL are bored or disillusioned with practical courses, and very much appreciate the value of highly disciplined theoretical work. At the same time, it is also true that there are many foreign teachers of EFL whose interests lie elsewhere, and whose English would not be up to many of the traditional courses currently available. But there is no reason why these teachers – and they're the vast majority – should not be awarded the same resources and access to prestigious study opportunities as their more favoured, intellectualised colleagues. Indeed, if (perhaps because of a reduction in the number of job opportunities overseas) the supply of British applicants to the long, traditional type of course ever dries up, and if the recent sudden growth of interest in the teaching of EFL to children continues, then foreign teachers of EFL can look forward to a wider range of course provision in Britain.

Notes

[1] **Academic Courses in Great Britain 1978–79**
Relevant to the teaching of English to speakers of other languages.

Brief List
THE BRITISH COUNCIL English Teaching Information Centre.
Compiled August 1977.

[2] **The British Council: Educational Enquiries** III IS/3
Teacher Training/Teacher Refresher Courses in English as a Second or Foreign Language. January 1978

[3] Strevens, Peter
'The Training of Language Teachers: A Look at the Future'
in: **Topics in Culture and Learning**
East-West Center, Honolulu, Hawaii
No 2 1974
the quote is from p 129

[4] Diller, Karl C
'Some New Trends for Applied Linguistics and Foreign Language Teaching in the US' **TESOL Quarterly**
Vol 9 No 1 pp 65–73

APPLIED LINGUISTICS IN EDINBURGH

S Pit Corder, University of Edinburgh

The School of Applied Linguistics in Edinburgh was established in 1957, partly through British Council initiative, in order to provide 'advanced professional training for teachers of English as a Second Language'. It had on its staff at that time people who have now become household names in the profession; Ian Catford, Peter Strevens, Ronald Mackin (seconded from the Council) and Elizabeth Ingram. Phonetics was taught by Professor David Abercrombie and Linguistics by Professor Michael Halliday. I was one of the lucky Council officers to have been selected for training in its early years (1959–60) and am thus in the special position of being able to make comparisons between the training offered at that time and at the present time, some twenty years later. The comparison is, I think, instructive, since it shows what a change there has been in what is regarded as the appropriate and relevant knowledge from the field of linguistics for the practical activity of language teaching.

One must remember that twenty years ago, while there was a considerable resource of experienced teachers of ESL, these had had no specific training for their work; what special knowledge and skills they possessed had been picked up 'on the job'. The reason for this was simple; there was at that time nowhere where they could have obtained such training; and whilst most were graduates in English or Foreign Languages, they had for the most part wandered into ESL, which was not then recognised as a specialism within language teaching. Furthermore, even if they had received training as teachers of modern languages, which would have been the nearest relevant training for the profession of ESL, such courses would have been wholly innocent of any special study of the nature of language (linguistics) or of language learning. Such topics formed then no part (with the exception, in some cases, of articulatory phonetics) of an initial degree in English or Modern Languages. Linguistics, which was then often called 'descriptive linguistics' (empasising its descriptive rather than expanatory function) was still a rather esoteric and essentially postgraduate field of study. Some who taught it then even considered that by its nature it was unsuited for teaching at the undergraduate level. More important, however, was the fact that its relevance to language teaching was neither felt nor perceived by language teachers – indeed, still is largely regarded as irrelevant by most modern language teachers in Britain at the present time, though it is true to say that there is just beginning to emerge a realisation by some educational thinkers that some knowledge of the nature of language may be relevant to teachers of any subject. In this respect the profession of ESL was then, and is still now, in the vanguard of thinking.

At that time I am speaking of, however, while there was such a glimmering

amongst some in the ESL field, a more precise appreciation of how linguistic knowledge might contribute to language teaching was far from well articulated, and one of the experiences of anyone taking training in what was coming to be called 'applied linguistics' was the effort to perceive the relevance of their studies to their day-to-day preoccupations with teaching in the classroom, that is, essentially classroom techniques. Many never did discover any relevance and perhaps they were looking in the wrong direction, since we now realise that it is not there that the main value of linguistic knowledge is to be felt. An awareness that what goes on between teacher and pupil in the classroom is not the sum of what is involved in language teaching took a long time to develop and the process is still far from complete at the present time.

The establishment of the School of Applied Linguistics in Edinburgh was therefore in some degree an act of faith: it was founded in the belief, commonsensical as it must appear now, that a knowledge derived from centuries of study into the nature of human language by scholars (who might not have called themselves 'linguists') must in some way or another be relevant to those who practice the profession of teaching language, that the best available knowledge about language must have some value to those who teach it. One can therefore characterise the first years of teaching at Edinburgh as essentially experimental and exploratory. It did not start out with a clearly seen and explicitly stated theory about the role of linguistic knowledge in language teaching, but gradually, through the dialogue between staff, the linguists and above all generations of students who were experienced teachers, there emerged slowly some sort of notion about the relevance of such knowledge. This is a dialogue which still continues and must continue. Neither linguistic theory nor the objectives of language teaching remain static. Linguistics as a discipline has grown and changed more within the last twenty years probably than at any other period of human history. At the same time the demand for English as a Second Language has altered both quantitatively and, more important, qualitatively in the same period. The task of the applied linguist is thus a continuing search for relevance, and accommodation between developing theories of language on the one hand and the changing and developing demands of language learners on the other.

The sheer novelty of linguistic studies to the teachers who came to Edinburgh in the late fifties and early sixties meant that most of their study time was necessarily spent on mastering those parts of linguistics theory which were then believed to be relevant to language teaching. There remained all too little time over for the realisation in practical work of any sort of what had been discovered to be relevant. Such practical studies as existed were concentrated on the dissertation which every student had to do. These fell into two main types: descriptive and comparative on the one hand, and syllabus analysis and design on the other. That is to say, their newly acquired linguistic knowledge and skills were devoted to developing more precise and pedagogically useful

description of English grammar (principally), contrastive studies of the structure of certain aspects of English and other languages, and the analysis of linguistic syllabuses found in current textbooks. We could describe therefore the practical work as being essentially concerned with sharpening up their understanding of the nature of the content of ESL courses and how to present that content in the form of teaching materials. We must here make a clear distinction between decisions about what to teach and decisions about how to present what has bee chosen for teaching, that is the distinction between selection and presentation. Little understanding was available and little work done on the principles of selection, largely because little research had been done by linguists on language in use, or as we would now call it 'discourse'.

This concentration of the practical work in Edinburgh at that time upon analysis, description and comparison caused outsiders to describe the Edinburgh training as being excessively 'theoretical'. The criticism had some force in the light of later developments, but was misdirected in another sense, because what the critics would have regarded as 'practical' would have been a fuller study of classroom procedures and techniques. Now, it was in the then climate of linguistics thinking not clear (and still remains somewhat obscure) what contribution linguistic knowledge can make to the development of classroom techniques. But the main counter argument to this criticism was that Edinburgh was not offering initial training, but advanced training. The proper and appropriate place for classroom observation and practice is in the initial not the advanced stages. Edinburgh students were always already experienced teachers and did not need such training. The notion that there were other practical skills connected with language teaching than classroom ones was simply not appreciated, that the design of syllabuses and teaching materials was a practical activity needing skill and special knowledge was simply not understood.

Things have changed since then. Firstly there are now well established facilities for initial training in ESL classroom techniques of various sorts available, and secondly teachers are much better prepared and sophisticated about linguistic studies than they were twenty years ago. Indeed the first products of linguistic courses at undergraduate level are now coming back, after teaching experience, for advanced training at Edinburgh. The need to spend so much time on theory has diminished; linguistics is not such a 'difficult' subject now. As a result of the early experimental and exploratory nature of the early years in teaching applied linguistics there has grown up a much clearer understanding of what the objective of such studies are what the relevance of linguistics in language teaching is. It is in the design of language teaching programmes and the production of teaching materials. The student intake into Edinburgh is now a body of some forty or so experienced ESL teachers who have normally had some form of initial training and are already fairly knowledgeable about the nature and scope of linguistic studies and its relevant to language teaching. For them we like to think that the Edinburgh MSc is a highly practical course since now about

half the study time is spent on practising techniques of application: description, design and realisation, whilst the remaining half brings them up to date in the now much wider range of linguistic theorising than twenty years ago.

The present training offered to teachers of ESL in Edinburgh now takes the form of an MSc in Applied Linguistics. This degree replaced the original Diploma some four years ago, extending the period of study from nine to twelve months, the extra three months being devoted to writing a thesis. The MSc can however be properly regarded as the old Diploma plus a thesis. The reason that the Diploma was abandoned and replaced by the MSc was quite simply that postgraduate diplomas are not understood by employers and educational authorities abroad as an increment-attracting qualification, and since half our students come from overseas and the majority seek employment overseas after graduation, they often suffered discrimination when competing with holders of master's degrees in the same field from English and American universities. The academic standards and the coverage of the subject in the old Diploma was in all respects equivalent to the new degree.

As I have said, the Edinburgh MSc is a professional training in applied linguistics and therefore half the study time is devoted to practical exercises which have as their aim the application of theoretical knowledge to techniques and procedures which contribute to language teaching, particularly in the area of design and materials production. But applied linguistics is best thought of as a spectrum of activities ranging from the most theoretical to the most professionally practical. The old dichotomy between 'pure' and 'applied' linguistics is no longer seen as a useful way of looking at the matter. The applied linguist is no longer to be regarded solely as a 'consumer of linguistic theory', albeit a discriminating consumer; he may be actively engaged in research which makes a contribution to both theory at one end and to the solution of some practical problem at the other. The fact is that the distinction between an applied and a pure linguist is not so much what he does or how he does it but **why** he does it. When the applied linguist finds some problem in language teaching and learning to which linguistic theories at the present time appear to offer no answers, then it is part of his role as an applied linguist to seek answers by undertaking the necessary research. To do this he must of course not only be aware of what linguistics has to say on the subject but also command the necessary descriptive abilities and skill and experience in research methods and techniques of evaluation, including of course the necessary statistical training to apply tests of significance and correlation to his and others' numerical results. This is why much of the small-scale practical projects undertaken by students are of an experimental or research type of investigation.

It has been said that linguistics in its broadest sense is the study of what it means to 'know a language'. The language teacher is in business to develop that knowledge in his pupils, or at least such a degree of knowledge as may serve his com-

munications needs in that language. The widening of the scope of what is subsumed under linguistic studies in the last twenty years is a measure of the degree to which the concept of 'knowledge of a language' has been enriched. No longer is a mastery of the structural properties of the language as a system a measure of that knowledge; the meanings which we wish to exchange through language are not merely propositional but social and textual; language is more than just a means of conveying information. That is not to say that there have not been notable advances in our understanding of the structure of language – the relation between propositional meaning and sound – in this period, but as far as language teaching is concerned it has been more in our understanding of language as a social phenomenon that the most important advances have been made, that is, in notions of language use or function. It is now just as important for the teacher to know something of the structure and functions of discourse as it is to know about the structure of sentences. Indeed some might claim that a knowledge of what traditional grammar had to say about sentence structure was an adequate basis for language teaching so long as it was accompanied by a thorough grounding in the study of how sentences are used in texts, and how utterances go to make up the structure of discourse. This is why as much time and effort is devoted to sociolinguistic theory and the practical study of texts and discourse as to a discussion of syntax, semantics and phonology in Edinburgh.

In the 1950's when the Diploma in Applied Linguistics was first instituted psychologists in Britain were little interested in language as a form of human behaviour. It is therefore all the more remarkable and indeed creditable that, from the beginning, the curriculum included courses on the learning of languages. Little enough was known about first language acquisition at that time and even less about the learning of second languages and virtually no empirical research had been done. What was believed was that general behaviourist learning theory could be expanded to include both first and second language acquisition and learning. The last twenty years has been one of intensive study of first language acquisition and it is now clear that behaviourist accounts of learning are inadequate to account for it. More recently people have turned their attention to second language acquisition, and, interestingly enough, it has not been the psycholinguist who has been at the forefront of this investigation but the applied linguist. This field together with that of discourse analysis is par excellence the area in which it has been the applied linguist who has been making the running in 'pure' research because he 'needed to know'. It seems now in retrospect quite extraordinary that what one would have thought was that branch of linguistic study which, on the face of it, had the most obvious relevance to language teaching should have had to wait until the early seventies to become a subject of serious empirical study under the title of Interlanguage Studies. The first step in these studies is to look at the structural properties of learners' language to see how it develops and becomes more complex either in a free learning situation or under tuition. We can no longer cling to the simplistic

notion that the learner is capable of learning whatever we set out to teach him whenever it pleases us to do so. If, as it now seems to be the case, that learners are to some extent programmed to learn a language in a particular way and sequence, then this must be of the highest significance in the design of syllabuses. It is for this reason that in Edinburgh all students undertake a piece of practical descriptive or experimental work on learner's language, having first undergone a course in the psycholinguistic theory of language performance and language acquisition.

To sum up, we are concerned with developing in students through theoretical and practical work an understanding of what it means to 'know a language' and how that 'knowledge' is acquired, and by implication, how the teacher can help the learner to acquire that knowledge. This is the theoretical and practical basis upon which the student builds when he comes to do his final piece of work, a thesis presenting a logically argued proposal for a syllabus for some specific English teaching situation, together with sample materials which exemplify the working out of that syllabus including the specific classroom techniques for exploiting those materials. This thesis is evaluated principally upon the degree to which the arguments put forward justifying it have been based upon what has been learnt in the theoretical and practical studies undertaken during the year, that is, upon an understanding of linguistics in its broadest sense.

Whilst it may be true in language teaching that the proof of the pudding is ultimately in the eating, one can go quite a long way to ensure the quality of the pudding by choosing the right ingredients, mixing and cooking them appropriately and serving the result efficiently. Indeed some may question whether it is ever practical to wait upon consumer feedback to validate a programme, and many would claim that in any real language teaching situation the only realistic evaluation is 'construct validity', the degree to which a programme and its materials have been based upon a logical application of what is the best present available understanding of the structure, function and process of acquisition of a language in a certain situation by a certain group of learners.

From a practical point of view what all the foregoing discussion means in terms of the curriculum for the MSc in Applied Linguistics is that students attend lecture courses in theoretical linguistics covering syntactic, and phonological theory amounting to some thirty hours, with the same amount of time devoted to small group tutorial or seminar work in which these theories are put to work to analyse selected data, and another thirty hours' study of English grammar in lecture and tutorial approached from a notional rather than a formal point of view. These theoretical courses are not able, or intended, to turn out theoretical linguists, but rather to train students to think and argue linguistically, to enable them to know where to look for answers to specific structural questions and to understand the relevant literature. They receive some twenty hours of socio-

linguistic lectures integrated with a tutorial course on the structure of discourse, again based upon selected data of spoken and written language to be analysed by application of the theories discussed. Finally, they receive some twenty-five hours of lectures on psycho-linguistic theory. The important point is that all study of theory is integrated with the practical applied task of analysing data in the light of the theories being discussed. We can call this first level application. The second level of application is in the practical studies already referred to: discourse analysis, interlanguage analysis and experimental design and testing. Each of these three main areas of language-teaching oriented techniques is the basis for a small scale individual supervised research project which follows a course of some fifteen hours of lectures, seminars and tutorials. Finally, there is the preparation for the thesis; we can call this the third level of application. This is conducted in a course lasting throughout the year on the Design in Language Teaching amounting to some thirty hours in all. The reason that this course is spread throughout the whole year is not only that this deals with the ultimate objective of the MSc course itself but that it keeps this objective constantly in the mind of the student so that he is encouraged to relate all his other theoretical and practical studies to it during the period of his study.

At this point it may be asked: where do such topics usually considered to be within the field of advanced study for ESL such as ESP, error analysis, contrastive analysis, reading and writing etc., fit in? Our answer to this question is that they are included with in the main three fields of second level applied practical studies. Error analysis and contrastive analysis are, for example, techniques in the study of interlanguage, and find their place in the course on that subject. ESP is only one aspect of the study of discourse in general. It is naive to think that these and topics like them are subjects in themselves which can, or need be, studied in isolation as special topics. Applied Linguistics is an integrative discipline. Problems in second language teaching can never be solved by reference to one theoretical approach to language alone, but require an integration of various branches of theoretical knowledge. Thus, error analysis, for example, requires an understanding of linguistic structure, the psychological processes of language learning and often the structure of discourse. The same is true of an understanding of the reading process or the use of language for so-called special purposes.

It is our belief that it is only by familiarising the student with the whole range of linguistic disciplines and by requiring him, through practical work, to think integratively that he will be enabled to solve the sort of practical problems that he will meet when he goes back 'into the field'.

LANCASTER DEVELOPMENTS IN THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

Christopher Candlin, University of Lancaster

History

The foundation for the present considerable involvement of the Department of Linguistics and Modern English Language at Lancaster, together with the University's new Institute for English Language Education, in the training of teachers of English, lies in the emphasis given to modern linguistic study at undergraduate level from the beginnings of the University itself in 1964. At first within the Department of English, then as a Section (or Sub-Department), and now as a separate Department within the School of English, Linguistics at Lancaster has always stressed the systematic study of the mother tongue, both as an end in itself (especially in the context of the world-wide teaching of English), and also as a means of giving support to the study and the interpretation of English literature.

This early closeness of Linguistics to English studies at Lancaster naturally led to specialisation in the field of Stylistics, regarded as the application of linguistic theories and techniques to the study of literature, and also to a strong interest in Applied Linguistics and English Language Teaching. The gradual growth of Linguistics as an independent subject has taken the form of establishing linked courses with many departments in the University unconnected with English studies. Such links, however, have often proved to be of great value for the developing work of the Department in the field of English Language Teaching: departments like Psychology, Educational Research, Philosophy, Computer Studies, as well as the other modern languages, German, French and Russian all explore areas of knowledge of considerable value to the teacher of English, providing that one can relate them coherently within a course of post-experience training.

In 1969, the Department offered for the first time at Lancaster, such a course of post-experience training at graduate level: the **MA in Linguistics for English Language Teaching.** Although in 1969 it was not possible to fulfil our intentions of providing such an interdisciplinary focus within the course (there would not be a Department of Psychology, for example, at Lancaster for another four years) it is perhaps significant that the course title: Linguistics **for** English Language Teaching: was not haphazardly selected. At the outset we realized that linguistics would support the pedagogic goal. Happily, as linguistics itself has become more mixable and more catholic in the way it can consort with other disciplines, so it is the case that the MA course now reflects the range of underlying disciplines needed by the experienced teacher of English. In a way, therefore, the need to widen the basis of English teaching from a too narrow a

reliance on linguistic theory alone, has been matched by the role of the Department of Linguistics and Modern English Language at Lancaster as a growing focus for interdisciplinary cooperation.

To date some 200 students have graduated from the MA programme. They have come from many different parts of the world, with very varied backgrounds and educational systems in which they work. It has been part of our policy to attract good students, both in terms of their formal educational qualifications and the quality of their experience, from as wide a range of countries as we can. In this way the Department enlarges its expertise, and keeps close to the practice of the discipline of teaching English, and in a similar way students following the graduate programme learn from each other's varied knowledge. We have always followed a practice of keeping our course numbers manageable so that we can attempt a tutorial relationship with our students, and to that end we restrict our entry to about 25 per year. About half of these are native-English speaking students who may have been working overseas, or with multi-cultural education within the UK. and about half come from countries overseas. From time to time, we have profited from students whose background has been in the Teaching of English as a Mother Tongue, and this has helped us not to be so compartmentalised in our practical thinking that we do not recognise fundamental and common issues between teaching English as a mother tongue and teaching English as a second or foreign language. Many of our students from overseas are sponsored by British funds, administered by the British Council or by ODM, others by their own governments. British students, however, are less fortunate; in the main they are self-financed and in an age where University fees are increasing considerably, many find it difficult to save sufficient for a year's graduate study. We would hope that this difficulty will be soon recognised as a major obstacle to the efficient development of the next generation of UK specialists in the teaching of English, and that agencies like the British Council will see the provision of scholarship aid to such students as a matter of high priority. Without it, we fear that we will not be able to match with trained personnel the increasing demand that such developments as the Council's KELT scheme or the Direct Teaching of English operation already signal.

Notwithstanding this important point, it is clear from our application numbers that the interest in obtaining post-experience training in the teaching of English is on the increase, and that institutions of higher education both in the UK and increasingly in countries overseas themselves have a long way to go before there is a likelihood of saturating the market.

Although the major part of our work since 1969 has focussed upon the MA programme, this has not exhausted our activities in the training of teachers of English.

For three years from 1969 we organised summer teacher-training courses for young teachers who had volunteered to work for a while overseas with agencies like VSO. Though it was often frustrating to have insufficient time for an adequate programme, we felt that we might have saved a volunteer three months or so of floundering at the outset, which, in the context of a short engagement was perhaps of value. It was interesting to note that more than once such VSO's reappeared as members of our MA class.

From time to time in the last few years the Department has organised or played host to small groups of teachers from overseas interested in working with Departmental staff. On occasion such a group has been made up of potential, rather than practising teachers, as, for example, over the last few years groups of graduate students from Iraq following a programme of English Studies, integrating linguistics and the study of literature.

Frequently, the Department has been happy to receive visitors from overseas concerned with English teaching and the training of teachers, who wish to meet staff members at Lancaster and to gain information on the organisation of our teaching programmes or on the various research projects and interests within the Department.

In a similar way, an increasing number of Lancaster staff have spent brief or more long-term attachments to countries overseas, and have concerned themselves in one way or another with the teaching of English. Such attachments have taken the form of Specialist Tours organised by the British Council, exchange programmes with overseas Universities, consultancy to curriculum development groups, teaching on training seminars and the giving of conference papers and lecture tours. All of these activities represent an overseas extension of our teacher training work, and contribute, furthermore, to the store of current information within the Department. It would be easy to match this overseas involvement with a UK one, outside of Lancaster, particularly in immigrant and multi-cultural education; several of our staff have had a continuing interest in these important fields.

Finally, the research projects and personal publications from the Department constitute a widespread, if impersonal, mechanism for the training of teachers of English. Lancaster work in Lexicography, English Grammar, English for Special Purposes, the basis of the Communicative Curriculum, Stylistics, and Linguistic Theory has an international reputation. Much of this work derives from our own students as well as from the staff, and we are now seeking ways in which many of the graduate projects from the former can reach a wider circulation. Particularly in Applied Linguistics, it is through the experience of our graduate students that we can experiment and innovate.

It is appropriate, at the end of this section on **History**, that I mention the

establishment of the **Institute for English Language Education** in the spring of 1977. The Institute is an independent University body, although closely related in its work to the Department of Linguistics and Modern English Language and to the School of Education. The Director and Deputy Director of the Institute, for example, are joint appointments between Department and Institute, and the staff of the Institute and that of the Department cooperate closely, both in teaching and research.

One of the principal aims of the Institute is that of post-experience teacher training, both for teachers of English as a Foreign/Second Language and teachers of English as a mother tongue. By arrangement it is possible for the Institute to mount specialised teacher training courses for particular sponsored groups, at Lancaster, elsewhere in the UK or overseas. In the same way, symposia, seminars and conferences can be organised, using the staff of the Institute and its facilities. Perhaps of greatest potential value to the training of teachers of English is the new **Diploma of Advanced Studies in Education (Linguistics and English Language Education)** which is on offer from 1978 in the Institute and is validated through the University's School of Education. (Details of this course, and that of the **MA in Linguistics for English Language Teaching,** are set out in Section 3 of this account). We are confident that the availability of this Diploma in a full-time and in two part-time versions, its unit-credit modular structure, the opportunity it gives for a dissertation to be written on a topic directly related to the candidates' place and pattern of work, the flexibility of the admissions procedure, and its intent to examine in what ways the whole scope of English language teaching can be brought together, will prove to be of lasting importance. We would hope, in particular, that many teachers who are unable to contemplate a whole year's continuous period of study, will look carefully at the part-time schemes of study we propose for the Diploma. Set as it is within the established pattern of D A S E courses, the Diploma ought to appeal not only to teachers in the UK public sector, but also to those teachers in private institutions who would value a qualification which is recognised within the UK educational system. For teachers from overseas, and, indeed, for some UK teachers also, the Diploma can offer a useful preparation for further work at M A level and beyond.

It is worth noting that the modules or Units of the Diploma are available within the Institute on a non-qualificatory basis. Teachers interested in taking one or more Units as such in-service courses, are very welcome to do so. In certain circumstances, and by arrangement, credit for such Units can be transferred to participants' home institutions.

Finally, those non-course teacher training activities listed above for the Department apply equally to the Institute and its staff, though there are two additions:

Firstly, the ongoing practical classes in English Language within the Institute, for a variety of specialised audiences, provide a crucial element

of classroom practice which gives credibility and realism to a teacher-training programme, and provides the substance for the formulation of new directions in the discipline.

Secondly, the Institute Resources Centre has been established to provide, in small scale, a centre for information on the teaching of English. We hope it will grow and serve teachers at Lancaster and the surrounding community, and also visitors to the Institute and the Department.

Aims and attitudes

We can perhaps best define our aims and attitudes to the training of teachers of English in terms of "balance" and "appropriateness".

By "balance", we imply:

1 A balance between linguistics and other disciplines fundamental to English teaching.
This balance has, at Lancaster, evolved with the development of the Department itself. The gradual linking of Linguisitics to other undergraduate subjects such as Psychology, Sociology and Educational Research has made it easy, at graduate and teacher-training level, to offer a wide basis of theory to underpin teaching practice.

2 A balance between theoretical and applied studies
While we have always held to the view that to talk of "applied" linguistics meant having something to "apply", we have tried hard to integrate theory and practice into coherent training programmes. Indeed, this is the only sensible course, when much impetus for theoretical rethinking and descriptive change may come from the fundamental questions raised in practical work. Applied linguistics ought, in our view, to be a two-way street.

3 A balance between theory and description
Although many of our teachers in graduate courses begin from a chiefly practical standpoint, many realise that if they are to evaluate for others the worth of competing views on the nature of language and language learning they must have more than a nodding acquaintance with current notions and ideas. To do so they need to examine carefully a range of theoretical views and relate them to the practical task of describing learners' behaviour and learners' language.

4 A balance between English as a Mother Tongue and English as a Foreign/Second Language
Especially in the Diploma, but also to an extent in the MA programme, we seek to make links between these two specialisms within English teaching,

not only in the area of L1/L2 acquisition study, but also in curriculum development and materials design.

5 A balance between native-English-speaking students and students from overseas
Keeping to this policy in our MA programme has greatly benefited our students, and enhanced their experience. Although this policy is clearly not one we can generally adopt (as when the Institute, for example, or the Department, mounts a specialised course for teachers from one or more particular countries overseas) it is nonetheless a valuable feature of the Lancaster provision.

By "appropriateness" we imply:

1 An appropriateness of content
The greatest control over the appropriateness and relevance of our teacher training programmes comes from the students themselves. Each course, in its feedback, suggests new emphases and direction, and, by following a policy of rapid implementation of workable ideas, we would hope to have kept our programmes credible to teachers of English. Naturally, the contacts outside Lancaster which we have, further contribute to this.

2 An appropriateness of experience
I have tried to indicate, in Section 1, the ways in which our teacher training programmes have developed, and have matched developments in the teaching of English itself. This is largely due to the relevance of the research and teaching experience of the Departmental and Institute staff, to this training task.

3 An appropriateness of task
We are not concerned, at Lancaster, with the **initial** training of teachers of English. Our particular resources and experience lie much more profitably in the further development of teachers after a period of practical classroom experience. It is at that point, we feel, that we can offer best fundamental information on language and language learning which will have general relevance. We are doubtful, for example, of the wisdom of trying, in Lancaster, to recreate the practical teaching conditions of any particular country overseas, or any multi-cultural classroom in the UK. What we can do, is to seek general principles of language teacher-training and relate them to truths about language and the process of learning.

Courses

The two courses at Lancaster concerned with the training of teachers of English (the MA in Linguistics for English Language Teaching in the Department, and the Diploma of Advanced Studies in Education (Linguistics and English Language Education) in the Institute) are organised as follows:

(NOTE: Separate brochures with full details of each of these training programmes including entrance qualifications and application procedures, are available:

For the MA: Graduate Studies Secretary,
MA in Linguistics for English Language Teaching
School of English
University of Lancaster
Bailrigg, Lancaster. LA1 4YT

For the Diploma: The Secretary,
Institute for English Language Education
Bowland College
University of Lancaster
Bailrigg, Lancaster. LA1 4YT

The MA in Linguistics for English Language Teaching

1 Nature of the course

This is an advanced course providing a training in General Linguistics and applied Linguistics, with special reference to English Language Teaching. Although the course is seen as an integrated year of study, the following three fields may be distinguished:

i General linguisitcs (with special reference to English): including Phonetics, Syntax and Semantics, Discourse.

ii Psycho-socio-linguistics and language learning: serving to link theory, research, and practice in language learning and teaching.

iii Applied linguistics: including the relation of research in linguistics and language learning to communicative curriculum design, involving practical work in the analysis and design of syllabuses, teaching materials, tests, etc.

Initial teacher training is, therefore, not one of the aims of the course. Its main emphasis is on the integration of theory and practice by providing a training in general and applied linguistics combined with practical experience in the analysis and design of curricula for English language learning. Applicants for the course are therefore expected to have teaching experience in English (or exceptionally, other languages). Apart from its purely educational function, we see the course as providing valuable post-experience training leading to more responsible posts at home or overseas in English Language Teaching, Teacher-Training, Linguistics, or Education. It is also appropriate for teachers and lecturers in the areas of multi-cultural education and English as a Mother Tongue.

2 Course description

There are a number of compulsory (Core) courses, and a set of Optional courses from which students chose one for credit, and may attend others, by arrangement, on an audit basis.

Core courses

i Syntax and semantics:
the implications of various currents of linguistic thought for the description of modern English syntax and semantics. Practical analysis.

ii Phonetics
General phonetic and phonological theory, with special application to the description of the sound-system of English. Practical analysis.

iii Applied Linguistics
Curriculum design in English Language Teaching. Conditions for the learning of communication. Project work.

iv Psycho-Socio-Linguistics and Language Learning
"How do we come to learn to communicate?" – interrelating theory and research in psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics, and the implications for teaching and learning. Project work.

v Research Design in Language Learning and Testing
(a) The design, analysis, and interpretation of experiments.
(b) Testing and its relationship to linguistic theory and language learning. Project work.

Optional courses (these may vary from year to year)

i Stylistics
the application of linguistics to the description and understanding of literary texts. Project work can include the study of non-literary texts.

ii Current Issues in Linguistic Theory
selections from up-to-date issues in linguistics.

iii Instrumental Phonetics and Phonology
the relationship between the physical basis of speech and the linguistic analysis of speech sounds in terms of modern phonology. Practical work.

iv Language and Educational Planning
the relation between language and social planning in the field of education. Principles of language planning with special reference to the role of English as an international language. Project work.

v Classroom Management: Research and Classroom Practice managing participation in the classroom. The treatment of oral error. Alternative ELT methodologies. Project work.

The Diploma of Advanced Studies in Education (Linguistics and English Language Education)

1 Nature of the course:
The Diploma provides an advanced in-service qualification for teachers specialising either in English as a Foreign or Second Language or in English as a Mother Tongue. It is designed for teachers with at least three years experience in either field who already hold a relevant initial qualification. The Diploma incorporates the view that curriculum objectives, content, methodology and evaluation procedures are an integrated process, and hence The Diploma course has been designed to provide its students with an understanding and practical expertise in three main and related areas:

a Linguistic Theory and Research (particularly within psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics) relevant to language learning and teaching.

b Research Design and Experimentation with reference to the English Language curriculum.

c Evaluation and Design of English Language Teaching curricula and materials.

The Diploma offers students **two Options**, or schemes of study: a programme for teachers of English as a Foreign/Second Language, **and** a programme for Teachers of English as a Mother Tongue. It recognises that both audiences will have differing experiences and priorities and training, and the course programme is designed to encourage the development of different specialisms. Nonetheless, there are joint basic concerns for both the EFSL and the EMT teacher, and the Diploma seeks to explore their extent.

2 Course description:
The first two areas are included in **three** Core Units which all students must take. These Units are as follows:

a Descriptive Linguistics for English Language Education: centered on contemporary English Language and concerned with Phonetics, Syntax, Semantics, and Discourse (common to the specialist options in EFSL and EMT)

b Psycho-Socio-Linguistics and Language Education: centered on the study of language learning and language use, with particular reference

to learner processes and strategies in language development and to teaching strategies. Serving also to link theory, research, and practice. (With separate elements in EFSL and EMT)

c Research Design and Experimentation in English Language Education: concentrating on the planning of experiments or investigations and the analysis and interpretation of results, including work in Language Testing and curriculum evaluation procedures. The Unit is designed as a useful basis for the students' own investigations particularly during the dissertation part of the course. (Common to EFSL and EMT).

These three Units are crucial background work, supportive and informative to the students' main concerns. The Unit on **Descriptive Linguistics** aims to provide language teachers with a practical sensitivity for the nature of the text confronting the learner – a kind of task-description –, a meta-language with which to handle text, and a blueprint against which they can plan particular curriculum objectives. It is not a course in Linguistics per se, but a study of a particular system which learners must confront and teachers present. The Unit on **Psycho-Socio-Linguistics** aims to relate the learning task both to the nature of learners and the contexts of learning and use. In doing so, the Unit introduces teachers to the psycho-sociological bases of English language learning and their implications for teaching. Thus the Unit functions as a conceptual link between the Descriptive and Applied areas of concern. Work within the Unit **Research Design and Experimentation** aims at enabling teachers to make informed and objective evaluations of what they are attempting to do and what their learners are actually doing. Again, this Unit provides a link between the two previous Units and Applied work. It introduces the assessment and investigation of aspects of materials and curricula against criteria of appropriacy and effect for task and learner.

The third main area of work within the Diploma, the **Evaluation and Design of English Language Teaching Curricula and Materials,** is covered by those Units (variable in any scheme of study) which are offered under the general title of **Applied Linguistics and English Language Education.** All students choose **two** such Units from the range provided. These 'applied' Units are characterised by a specific orientation: i.e. based on **learner-types,** or **objectives,** or **materials types,** or **methodology,** and are in the nature of practical Workshops for group involvement.

A Diploma student, whether full-time or part-time, completes a total of **six** Units: three Core Units, two of the 'applied' Units, and the Dissertation Unit. The latter is regarded as particularly important, in that it incorporates for the student the practical application and evaluation of the information and the expertise embodied in all the other Units. The latter is regarded as particularly

important, in that it incorporates for the student the practical application and evaluation of the information and the expertise embodied in all the other Units. Students are encouraged to relate their Dissertation work to their own teaching situations and concerns.

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As I indicated in Section I of this Report, there are other teacher-training programmes organised at Lancaster for teachers of English. These are, however, specific ones which are organised from time to time for particular groups, with the exception of those Units of the Diploma (see above) which are available during the summer period, on a non-qualificatory basis, for interested serving teachers.

Research

The individual research interests of the staff of the Department and the Institute are various, but the most notable areas of specialisation relevant to the training of teachers of English are the following: applied linguistics, sociolinguistics, stylistics, semantics, theoretical linguistics, English Grammar, discourse analysis, and phonetics. In addition, there are a number of research projects in progress or recently completed, which are germane to the interests of English teachers.

1 The Computer Archive of Modern English Texts (CAMET):
The immediate goal of this project was to compile a 1000,000 word corpus of British English printed texts, to form a facility for research on the modern English language. The corpus was designed to match an equivalent corpus of American English compiled at Brown University. The Lancaster corpus is now complete, and has been used for a semantic study of the modal auxiliaries in present-day English, in collaboration with the Brown corpus.

2 Doctor-Patient Communication Skills (DOPACS):
This applied linguistics project has investigated the communication demands on doctors in Casualty (Accident and Emergency) Departments in British hospitals, and has produced a set of multi-media teaching materials (slides/audio-tape/video-tape/book materials) intended to assist teachers of specialised medical communication to doctors from oversea.

3 General Medical Council (Temporary Registration Assessment Board) Test for Overseas Doctors:
This research project has developed a bank of standardised test items for use by the General Medical Council in assessing the English Language communication skills of doctors from overseas seeking employment in the National Health Service.

4 Engineering Discourse and Listening Comprehension:
This project, sponsored by the King Abdul Aziz University in Jeddah, in co-operation with the British Council, investigated the discourse of Engineering lectures with a view to specifying criteria for the development of specialised listening comprehension materials for students from overseas, or in English-medium overseas Universities and Colleges.

5 Study Skills in English:
This project, begun in the Department in 1971, and now continuing within the Institute, is aimed at the development of specialised teaching materials for the teaching of study skills to overseas graduates about to begin postgraduate studies in UK Universities. The materials are being continuously developed, in cooperation with the appropriate University subject departments, and evaluated in the pre-sessional and in-sessional courses held in the Institute.

Further, the Department has a small phonetics laboratory, used for both teaching and research.

Department and Institute staff are actively engaged in the development and monitoring of English Language Teaching materials, both privately and in cooperation with outside bodies.

Future plans

We expect to continue the successful MA programme, and, within the Institute, to consolidate the newly-established Diploma.

The development of specialised courses in the teaching of English will continue and, we hope, expand, within the Institute, and we look for further Department-Institute cooperation, particularly in the field of Stylistics and English Studies. Such a development would keep active the language-literature links within the School of English, as well as providing a valuable service to teachers overseas.

We are at present, within the Institute, formulating a research programme for the next period, and although plans are not yet finalised, we would expect to develop our expertise in criterion-referenced Testing; examine the relationship between communicative interaction in the classroom and in the world outside; investigate the characteristic communication needs of adult foreign language learners within the EEC framework; and begin assessing the possibilities of developing computer-assisted self-instructional materials, using television, for individualised learning of English.

There is no doubt that, given the experience of the Department and Institute staff, and in particular, the research resource of our graduate students, we will

be able to continue as strong a support for the training of teachers of English as we have done hitherto.

We would hope that both the Department and the Institute can cooperate with other UK institutions of higher education, and agencies like the British Council, in formulating a national policy for teacher training and development in the field of English Studies. There is a present danger of fragmentation and associated disperson of effort, and a major future plan would be to seek coherence and a national effort.

Members of Staff

Department of Linguistics and Modern English Language

M H Short, BA (Lancaster), MA (Birmingham), Head of Department: stylistics, text linguistics
R A Allwright, BA (Reading), M Litt (Edinburgh), Cert Ed (Birmingham): applied linguistics, language-teaching classroom research
M A Beaken, BA Ph D (London): phonetics, language acquisition
R T Bell, BA Dip Ed (Hull), MA (Birmingham): applied linguistics, sociolinguistics
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J R Hurford, BA (Cambridge), Ph D (London): linguistic theory, generative grammar, Arabic
G Knowles, BA (Cambridge, Ph D (Leeds): phonetics, phonology, contemporary English
Professor G N Leech, MA, Ph D (London): semantics, stylistics, English grammar
G R Sampson, MA (Cambridge), MA (Yale), MA (Oxford): philosophy of language, linguistic theory, Oriental languages
L Uphill, (Experimental Officer): phonetics
Dermot F Murphy, BA, PGCE (TEFL) (London), MA (Lancaster): discourse analysis, materials design, applied linguistics
Greta K Sealey, MA (Lancaster), Cert Ed (London): language and mother tongue education including second language learning: continuing teacher education: discourse analysis

Institute for English Language Education

Director: C N Candlin (see above)

Deputy Director: M P Breen (see above)

Lecturer: Pauline M Rea, MA (Lancaster) language testing, research design, curriculum design

Teaching Fellows: Alan Waters, MA (Glasgow), PGCE (TEFL) (Bangor): course and materials design, ESP, teacher education

The writing of this contribution to the *ELT Documents* was greatly helped by an unpublished paper by Geoffrey Leech with the title: *Linguistics at Lancaster;* needless to say, my emphases are personal ones, though widely shared.

ELT COURSES AT BANGOR

Carl James

The University College of North Wales (UCNW) at Bangor is one of the six constituent colleges of the University of Wales. It enjoys a picturesque setting 'twixt sea and mountains, and, located in an area of Welsh-English bilingualism, has had a longstanding and proper concern for ELT. The Department of Linguistics has a staff of eight, and offers a variety of courses at undergraduate and postgraduate levels: we average around 40 undergraduates and 60 post-graduates, which ensures a favourable staff: student ratio of around 1:13, a ratio enhanced by our use of small tutorial groups.

There are three one-year postgraduate courses in the field of ELT, two of which are 'academic', the other one 'professional', as follows:

1 Diploma/MA in English as a Second or Foreign Language (ESFL)

2 Diploma/MA in Linguistics for Language Teaching (LLT)
(This new course commences in October 1978)

3 Postgraduate Certificate in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL)

ESFL and LLT are 'academic' courses in that they provide non-initial training to candidates who are already qualified in, and have relevant experience in, teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language, whether overseas or in immigrant communities or private English-language schools in Britain. TESL caters for British or native-speaker graduates seeking a Ministry-recognised initial teaching qualification. Average numbers registered on the ESFL, LLT, and TESL courses are 30, 10 and 15 respectively. LLT is distinct from the other two courses in another way: it is also open to British teachers of froeign languages (French, German, Russian) or Welsh; in this case, different options, relating to the foreign or second language, are selected for study.

Note that the two 'academic' courses are Diploma/MA courses. The Diploma is awarded on the result of satisfactory achievement in an examination held in June and involving four three-hour written papers. Candidates who achieve an adequate standard above that qualifying them for the Diploma in this examination are allowed, if they so wish, without being awarded the Diploma, to prepare a dissertation on a topic of their choosing of not more than 20,000 words for submission for the degree of MA. The dissertation may be submitted not earlier than 1st September following the June examination and no later than 30th September of the following year. Thus the Diploma course is of nine months duration, while it takes between eleven and twenty-four months

to complete the MA. This flexible provision makes it possible for candidates so wishing to resume teaching and to prepare the dissertation in their spare time 'at the chalkface'. In fact, most candidates proceeding to the MA – and about 60% do proceed – complete the dissertation within the six months after the Diploma examination. A candidate whose dissertation is subsequently not accepted as of MA standard is eligible for the retrospective award of the Diploma. While failure to qualify for a Diploma in ESFL or LLT is possible, of course, it is a very rare occurrence. We have adopted this flexible system in Bangor to ensure that every candidate realises his or her full potential. It must be emphasised that continuance beyond the Diploma is entirely dependent upon performance, which is assessed by the examination and also by the term work submitted. There is no 'numerus clausus' however and we would welcome the day when we could promote 100% of candidates to the MA scheme.

All candidates for the three courses must be of graduate status or its equivalent, and the validity and acceptability of their qualifications must be established to the satisfaction of the Academic Board of the University of Wales. In addition, the University requires from applicants a written guarantee that the candidate will be in possession of sufficient funds for fees and residence in Bangor. Details of fees are available from the Registrar.

Having said something in general about the Bangor courses, let me now describe each in more detail.

The ESFL Course: Director: Mr K A Owen, MA

This is intended for experienced teachers of English as a second or foreign language: in fact, we insist on at least **two years'** continuous teaching experience gained in a recognised institution, either in the public or private sector. We do not insist that applicants having such experience must still be classroom teachers: ELT inspectors, curriculum developers, course and materials writers etc. are welcomed onto this course, since we feel that our Linguistics orientation has much to offer to such clients. The course is intended for both British and overseas nationals, although we are unwilling to enrol more than 30% of the former, since policy is to create a group of students with a wide spectrum of experience from all over the world. The overseas candidats are drawn from many countries, the aim being to achieve the richest possible mixture. Where two or more candidates originate from the same country, they are separated by being assigned to different tutorial groups.

The syllabus may be summarised as follows into four sectors, each of which constitutes a paper in the Diploma examination. It will be seen that the course contents lay stress on the practical applications and implications of linguistic knowledge. There is thus greater emphasis on the phonetics of English and the description of contemporary English usage than on the theoretical bases of

Linguistics, although the necessary general foundations are laid.

1 **Phonetics:** 40 lectures, of which 10 are on General Phonetics, 5 on Contrastive Phonetics, and 25 on English Phonetics; the following areas are discussed:

2 **General Phonetics:** an introduction to general (i.e. not language-specific) articulatory phonetics, in accordance with the International Phonetics Association's practice. Assumes no knowledge of phonetics. Emphasis on demonstration, but also some ear-training. Speech v. non-speech; applications of phonetics; physiology of the speech-organs; air stream mechanisms; contoids and their classification; vocoids and the Cardinal Vowel scale; multiple articulation; diphthongs; the phonological role of the units 'vowel' and 'consonant'; the syllable etc.

3 **Contrastive Phonetics:** executing a contrastive analysis of the sound systems of two languages, and generalising from this to an elaboration of the principles of contrastive phonetics and their use in the foreign-language pronunciation-teaching situation. The role of the phoneme, of production versus perception-based phonology; hierarchy of phonetic difficulty; predicting difficulties and sound-substitutes; the implications for selection, grading and testing.

4 **English Phonetics:** Comprising some 25 lectures (including periods of practical work) together with tutorials in smaller groups: listening cubicles are used for private study. The Received Pronunciation of British English is taken as the pedagogical norm, but reference is made as appropriate to other home and overseas accents, and students of all backgrounds are encouraged to develop self-awareness with regard to their own speech. Special attention is given to the recognition, control and understanding of English intonation patterns.

5 **English Grammar:** (40 lectures)
The main aim of this course is to provide students with a degree of awareness concerning grammatical phenomena in English that will equip them to assess critically existing teaching materials and to produce materials of their own. To this end, the course attempts to cover as wide a variety of grammatical topics as is possible. The lectures are exploited in tutorial sessions, where students are provided with textual material upon which to comment. No specific grammatical model is assumed, the approach being the eclectic one exemplified in *A Grammar of Contemporary English* (Quirk, et. al.: 1972).

6 **Applied Linguistics:** (40 lectures). There are four components:

a Psycholinguistics (10 lectures): a discussion of the major theories (Cognitivist, Behaviourist, Materialist) of language acquisition in infants, and the implications for foreign-language teaching. The concepts of

'language model' and 'model of language learning'. Intelligence, aptitude, attitudes and sociopsychological factors in classroom foreign-language learning.

b Interlanguage. (10 lectures): the study of the second-language learner's approximations to the target language. Contrastive analysis and the transfer of the native language. Error analysis: diagnosis and evaluation of learners' errors.

c Language variation (5 lectures). Presents and illustrates a model for stylistic analysis of spoken and written texts. The model employs a 'neutral' grammatical framework, and the emphasis is on practical analysis, rather than on theory of stylistics.

d Vocabulary (15 lectures): This course component surveys a gamut of topics to do with vocabulary. While the point of departure is Linguistics, practical concerns are the goal: the organisation of lexical systems in specific languages; translational contrasts; learners' errors in vocabulary; the psychological correlates of lexical systems; pedagogy; vocabulary selection; learners' inference of meaning; classroom presentation of vocabulary; learners' dictionaries and their use. The main linguistic categories of vocabulary discussed are: cognates; word-formation; grammatical idiosyncrasy of lexical items; idiomaticity; semantic relations of hyponymy, synonymy; collocation and polysemy; connotation; frequency; availability.

7 **Methods** (40 lectures)
The aim of this course is to stimulate discussion of a wide range of issues in ELT methodology. Views are challenged and experiences exchanged, so that "the conversation of all becomes a series of lectures to each" as Newman once said. Topics treated include: pre-secondary level ELT and the use of written forms, of action games, role-play and puppets; initial and continuative ELT at secondary level; the language laboratory and the design of drills; oral work and standards of pronunciation; reading: look-say and phonics. ITA and colour-coding, reading comprehension; composition: guided and free; English for Special Purposes; the visual element; informal classroom testing.

It should be noted that there is no practice-teaching in schools, nor are school visits arranged; no micro-teaching using closed-circuit TV. It is assumed that candidates will have encountered these forms of practical teacher training in their pre-service or in-service experience.

The LLT Course: Director: Dr Carl James, BA

This course is designed for experienced language teachers of four types: of

English as a second or foreign language; of a foreign language other than English; of the mother tongue; or for qualified speech therapists. It introduces the student to the aims and methodology of Linguistics with particular reference to those topics which impinge on his/her main field of interest. It differs from the ESFL course in three respects: in its wider terms of reference; in its stronger theoretical orientation; and in its lacking a methods component. The ELT client whom we envisage for this course will have wider experience and more academic aptitude and aspirations than his counterpart on the ESFL course, probably contemplating a career in 'Applied Lingusitics'. We have resisted the temptation to label this an 'Applied Linguistics' course for two reasons: the majority of the staff profess 'pure' Linguistics and would not presume to teach the 'applied' discipline; secondly, we have failed to identify a body of knowledge in our discipline which we would designate as 'Applied Linguistics'. We deem it wiser to leave the sophisticated client to make his own applications when and as the (unforeseeable) demands of his future career dictate. Perhaps 'Applicable Linguistics' is the more suitable label.

There are again four course components, reflected in the four papers of the Diploma examination.

1 **Grammatical Theory**: (55 lectures)
A historical survey of 20th century grammatical theory, proposing some general criteria for 'good' theory. An introduction to the method of symbolisation of Jespersen's *Analytic Syntax*, which is the point of departure for consideration of Bloomfieldian, and then Chomskyan grammatical theory. Early Transformational Grammar and Semantics are studied in parallel: Katz and Fodor's (1965) framework for semantics is related to Chomsky's *Aspects* model, followed by a radical critique on both theoretical and empirical grounds. Post-*Aspects* grammar, including Case Grammar and Generative Semantics. A short course on Systemic grammar.

2 **Phonetics and Phonology**: (50 hours)
In addition to following the three components offered to ESFL students (viz: General Phonetics, Contrastive Phonetics and English Phonetics: see above for details), LLT students are offered lecture courses on Phonetics and Phonological Theory. 'Phonemics' deals with the classical discovery procedures and provides extensive cross-language exemplification of the principles of contrast, the phoneme, allophone, complementary distribution, free variation, structural pressure, nonuniqueness, assimilation, dissimilation, reduplication, gemination, contraction, epenthesis and elision. The emphasis is on data-based problems. The Phonology component discusses the Chomsky and Halle 'standard' exposition of generative phonology. Coverage includes notions such as: biuniqueness, phonological hierarchy, neutralisation, markedness, the archiphoneme; morphophenemics, and distinctive features.

3 **Applied Linguistics:** (45 lectures) There are three subcomponents:

a **Language Acquisition:** Discussion of competing theories of native-language acquisition: the Chomsky-Skinner controversy over the role of conditioning as a determinant of acquisition. The notions of innate ideas or predisposition to acquisition. Lenneberg's theories of maturation and biological determinism in acquisition. Grammars for describing acquisition: pivot models, T-G models, and Case Grammar. The universals of acquisition. The similarity of L2 learning, in natural and artificial environments, to LI acquisition. The LAD hypothesis. Notion of the built-in syllabus. The monitor model.

b **Educational Applied Linguistics:** comprises subcomponents on Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis, with particular attention to determining error gravity and remedial procedures. Comparative methodology: an examination of the linguistic suppositions underlying a number of foreign-language teaching 'methods', from grammar-translation to the Silent Way.

c **Vocabulary Study:** as outlined for the ESFL course in ESFL above.

4 **Language Description** (40 lectures). LLT students taking the ELT option follow a course in the grammar of English, which is more rigorous, detailed and model-based than that followed by ESFL students. In addition, there is a strong ingredient of Sociolinguistics, which discusses: Labov's work on situational and social variety in language use; Bernstein's concepts of 'elaborated' and 'restricted' codes, and the deficit hypothesis; language variation by sex; and such notions as sociolect, basilect, and acrolect. A component entitled Sociology of Language covers notions such as:

Plurilingualism, language planning; language-loyalty and linguistic aspects of nationalism.

The TESL Course: Director: Mr S F Whitaker, MA

This course leads to the Certificate in Education, and as such is intended for British graduates requiring initial teacher-training. It is administered by the Department of Education, but students receive up to 40% of their instruction from the Linguistics Department: the former provides the 'professional' training, including two teaching practices each of 5 weeks' duration (in Madrid and Birmingham), while the latter provides the specialist instruction in Linguistics. A further difference between the two departments is that assessment on the Educational component is 'continuous' and involves the writing of two long essays, while the Linguistics component is formally examined by two three-hour written papers. The clients, albeit engaged in initial training, have usually gained

some experience of ELT, abroad and/or in Britain. Owing to the two teaching practices, course work in the Linguistics Department has to be compressed into three five-week blocks: as a result, the work is quite demanding in its concentration.

Once again, we can conveniently describe the course components (in Linguistics) by reference to the two examination papers set in June.

Phonetics and Gramm[illegible]f English (35 lectures)
The Phonetics course provides a simple introduction to the discipline, then proceeds to a discussion of English consonants and vowels in connected speech; and the salient features of stress and intonation in English receive close attention. 'R P' is taken as the model for pronunciation, and emphasis is laid on the student developing an ability to transcribe English speech. **Elements of General Phonetics** (Abercrombie) is recommended as pre-course reading.

The Grammar component subscribes to no one model of description, but is electic. Areas singled out for scrutiny are: English 'basic' and 'derived' sentence-types; the Verb: auxiliaries, voice, tense, aspect, and modality; the Noun Phrase: noun classification, determiners, quantifiers, relativisation, adjectives, and comparatives. It is realised that this coverage is very restricted by time constraints: but the aim of the course is to illustrate an approach to the description of English, and not to be exhaustive.

Insights and Applications (45 lectures)
This provides a survey of some areas of Linguistics which would seem to impinge on the broader professional concerns of the incumbent language teacher.

1 Introduction to Linguistics: An examination of traditional and modern views of and attitudes to language: the notions of correctness, prescriptivism, and usage. The dichotomies of speech/writing, diachrony/synchrony, universals/specifics of languages, and notional/formal grammars. The level of linguistic analysis, scale of grammar, distribution, paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations, and hierarchical structure.

2 Language Variation: The ways in which social constraints of style and register may determine language use. The structural characterisation of the language of some social situations: casual conversation, journalese, religious and legal English, for instance.

3 Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis: Examination of the ways in which one's first language interferes with, or facilitates, the learning of a second or foreign language. The prediction of a scale of learning difficulty in terms of interlinguistic distance. The definition of linguistic errors and their classification and diagnosis. The assessment of gravity of error and remedial intervention.

4 Vocabulary: Linguistic accounts of vocabulary and applications to the study of foreign-language vocabulary learning. The assessment and utilisation of learners' dictionaries.

5 Linguistics and learning materials: Discussion of linguistic criteria for the selection and grading of learning materials. Drills and language laboratory techniques.

6 Transformational Grammar: An introduction to the goals and methods of TG covering such questions as the role of phrase structure and transformational rules and the distinction between deep and surface structure. It was thought wise to include this component in view of the widespread misunderstanding of TG in the language-teaching profession, and to equip teachers to evaluate the claims made by some publishers about its revolut onary relevance to language teachers.

In addition to the three course offerings described here, the Department also offers facilities for supervised research, at MA and PhD levels, in many fields of 'pure' and 'applied' Linguistics. While we attempt to cover the whole field of Linguistics without doctrinaire bias to any particular school of thought, our main interests include: Phonetics (we have a well-equipped phonetics laboratory for instrumental research); English Syntax; Contrastive and Error Analysis; Dialectology; and Lexicology. Candidates contemplating research in one of these fields are especially welcome in Bangor. Only rarely do we entrol a new student directly for a PhD however: it is required of him/her to first do work at MA level.

Those members of the teaching staff who direct the ELT courses are well qualified and experienced in the field. They maintain contact with the world of ELT in various ways, including contributing to international ELT conferences, participating as lecturers invited by The British Council and overseas governments, and acting as ELT consultants. While professing Linguistics, and believing that it has a substantial role to play in the co-operative solution of ELT problems, we do not claim that Linguistics is a panacea: we proceed with caution in Bangor. Students following the above courses occasionally fail to see any immediate and striking 'relevance' to their practical everyday ELT problems: but many write back, years after graduating from here, to say that the knowledge they gained in Bangor proves of perennial value to them as ELT decision-makers.

ELT DEVELOPMENTS AND INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT:
The University of Manchester's contribution

Gerry Abbott University of Manchester

Providing for needs

The last fifteen years have seen an unprecedented growth of interest and activity in the teaching of English to non-native speakers abroad and in Britain. More and more millions of children have been required by national curricula, especially in Third World countries, to study English; many countries with expanding education systems have retained the use of English as the medium of study: and enormous numbers of adults everywhere have found that they need to learn English for certain academic or occupational purposes. The need for specially-trained personnel (teachers, teacher-trainers, inspectors, administrators, syllabus designers, textbook writers and test-constructors) has grown correspondingly; and this growth has been reflected in developments within the University of Manchester's Department of Education.

Fifteen years ago (1962/3) the Diploma Course in the Teaching of English Overseas (DTEO) started with an intake of four students. Last year there were nearly two hundred applications for the course, which takes only 24 students a year: there were more than seventy applications for our taught Master's course (M Ed TEO), which takes no more than 12 per year; several students were completing M Ed theses; and one had just been awarded his Ph D. One development, then, has been the expansion of provision for study at all levels. It seems, however, that we shall have to continue to deal with far more applicants than we can accept, since expansion of staffing, and therefore of student numbers, is not possible; but the recent establishment in October 1978 of ELTRU (The English Language Teaching and Research Unit) has provided not only a stimulus for staff and student research but also a means of organising specialised short courses and seminars.

Entry to the courses

Of the Diploma course places, more than half (14) are earmarked for young British graduates hitherto untrained for teaching. These undertake not only the Diploma studies but also Postgraduate Certificate in Education components offered by our Department. If successful in both, they are awarded Qualified Teacher Status along with their Diploma. Of the remaining ten places, a few will go to British teachers who are alrady qualified but who lack a TEFL qualification, and about half a dozen to overseas teachers from various parts of the world; we select only those who appear able to work at the same level and pace as the rest of the students, for no provision is made for the improve-

ment of an overseas trainee's English on our courses. Applicants, whether British or not, considered unless they have at least two years' appropriate full-time teaching experience. We believe that it is those who have taught English abroad, have enjoyed it and have become committed who will put most energy into, and get most satisfaction out of, our DTEO course.

For entry to our taught Master's course, now called M Ed TEO, about five years' experience is needed. At least half of the dozen places are filled by British teachers; some of these pay their own way, because grants are not normally available, others are seconded by local education authorities in Britain. Most of the overseas students (as in the DTEO course) are sponsored by the British Council, by H M Government agencies or by their own governments or institutions.

The large majority of our M Ed applicants are interested in gaining the qualification by means of coursework and the presentation of a dissertation (Method 1). However, those who have a particular research interest which they want to pursue register for M Ed (Method 2) and eventually submit a thesis. A few who are capable of advanced research register as Ph D candidates. These have included two or three British Council officers in recent years. These M Ed and Ph D Candidates are normally required to produce evidence of some experience of, or aptitude for, research; and they are not accepted until they have submitted an outline of the research they intend to pursue which is acceptable to a group of tutors who are convened to scrutinise the proposal.

Content of the Diploma and M Ed courses

The planning of a multi-national teacher-training course in Britain differs greatly from that of a teacher-training course in an overseas territory for that territory; Trainees on the latter type of course can be prepared for specific tasks within specific cultural settings, whereas most of our Manchester trainees are destined to carry out unpredictable tasks in a variety of settings. But whatever the future career of our trainees – teacher-trainers, inspectors, textbook writers or (most important of all) teachers – they will need not only the fluency in English that we take for granted but also, at the very least: a knowledge of its complex systems; an insight into language-learning processes; an awareness of the limitations, as well as the possibilities, of classroom teaching; and a grasp of the principles and techniques of measuring performance in a second or foreign language.

The first of these needs is catered for by our colleagues in the Department of General Linguistics. An initial course in General Linguistics is followed by a course in which the general principles and procedures are applied to the description of contemporary English. In parallel, a study of the principles of general Phonetics leads on to a thorough course in the phonological structure of English.

A sensitivity to the intricate patterning of the language is of undoubted value in a teacher, if only because it makes him more aware of the complexity of the learner's tasks. It is also useful for teachers to have a sound knowledge of how the linguistic scientist's mind works when he is trying to discover the systems of a language.

Of much more importance to teachers, though, is how the learner's mind works when he is trying to discover such systems. Whereas the linguist has the language spread out before him like a map and can survey its features and networks as a whole, the learner is new to the territory and has to create his own mental map of it as he ventures into it. As yet there is no satisfying explanation of how the successful learner does this; and in the absence of a cogent explantion one finds, as on so many other important issues, propositions and counter-propositions (each of which may contain valuable insights) competing for acceptance. The teacher needs to study these claims and counter-claims, and to be encouraged to select features of each, reconciling them wherever possible to produce a programme of principles that satisfies him. What he wants most of all is a chance to observe, discuss and try out various teaching techniques, so that he can adopt those which will best put his 'programme' into action.

All work on learning processes and teaching techniques is included in the component labelled 'Teaching English Overseas' (to which more hours are devoted than to General Linguistics, Phonetics and Contemporary English put together) except that Teaching Practice is a separately examined component in the Diploma course. The M Ed students are required to do some experimental teaching: that is, to try out techniques that are new to them without the fear of being examined as they do so.

It will have become apparent that these two courses are not courses in Linguistics, though linguistic studies are included; nor are they courses in Applied Linguistics, though we assume that the teacher does apply his linguistic knowledge to his professional tasks; they are courses in the principles and methods of teaching English to speakers of other languages. It may also have become apparent that our Diploma students benefit from a share in the mainstream of M Ed work: they attend the same plenary sessions, though M Ed students advance independently in the seminar and tutorial sessions. The disadvantage of this participation is that, at present, holders of our Diploma are not permitted to move on to the M Ed TEO course; plans are currently being considered to remove this obstacle.

There are, of course, other distinctions between the two courses. Recent years have seen a development of interest in the sociological aspects of language-learning (e g bilingualism and 'languages in contact') and language use ('who says what to whom and why'). Concurrently, psychological enquiries into the nature of language acquisition – the learning of a mother tongue – have thrown some light on second language learning, though caution is needed in making

extrapolations. Courses in Psycholinguistics and Sociolinguistics have therefore been established in the M Ed course, and together form one of its major components.

If one of our Diploma students of fifteen or sixteen years ago were to return to the course now, the first thing that would strike him would be the great increase in the sheer amount and variety of work to be done. Indeed, so many areas of study and activity have opened up in the intervening years that there is not enough time for everything to be included in the 'core programme'; a system of 'electives', mini-courses of five or six hours each, has therefore been added. All Diploma students are required to undertake two of these and to produce assignments on these topics, for M Ed students, they are optional.

Even so, time is short. It is often felt, by staff as well as students, that certain topics receive less attention than they deserve. It has also proved difficult to decide what to put into the 'core programme' and what to offer as elective courses. Error Analysis started off as an elective and moved into the main syllabus; perhaps English for Specific Purposes will follow suit, since many job specifications now include ESP.) The following outline, a copy of which was given to each course member at the start of the 1977–78 courses, shows our current TEO syllabus.

Block	Week	TEO Core Programme, 1977–78	Hours	Other requirements per block
1	1	Language learning situations	2	**Electives:**
	1/2	Language learning processes	4	English by TV; or
	2/3	Language teaching approaches	4	AV Aids; or
	3/4	Listening & speaking 1: Pronunciation: perception and production	4	Literature; or Initial Reading and writing
	4	Planning and running a lesson	2	
	5	Reading comprehension: processes and materials	4	..... Two Core assignments
2	6	Listening comprehension	2	**Electives:**
	7/8	Writing: as support to oral work and as discourse	4	English – medium education; or
	9/10	Listening & speaking 2: oral fluency	4	ESP or Teaching Pronunciation
				..... One Core assignment
				..... TP for initial trainees

		Christmas Vacation		
3	11	Error analysis	3	**Electives:**
	12	Remedial work	3	Language Lab. or
	13	Lexical meaning and selection	3	Teacher-training
	14/15	Using and adapting text-books	6	.....
				One Core assignment
				.....
				Preliminary work on M Ed dissertations
				TP for non-initials
				.....
				Two Education options for initial trainees
4	16/20	Programme for M Ed and non-initial students to be in consultation with students		Barcelona TP for initial trainees
				.....
				Dissertation and project work
		Easter Vacation		
5	21/22	Testing	4	Dissertation and
	23/24	Course – Design	4	project work

If our returning student had been asleep for fifteen years, he would be surprised to hear about 'learning strategies'; the emphasis on the learner as a solver of problems and a creator, rather than as a copying-device, would intrigue him. He would know that the initials CA stood for contrastive analysis (whereas some of today's recruits do not) but he would have to be told what EA meant, and be initiated into the procedures of error analysis. He would have no idea what ESP meant. Discourse analysis and its terminology would be new to him. He would want to know what a 'functional approach' was, and would be puzzled by the term 'notional' as applied to syllabus construction. The use of 'information-transfer' in teaching and of cloze techniques in testing would be novel, though the latter would appear to be simply an extension of the age-old gap-filling device. Psycholinguistics and Sociolinguistics would be new fields of study. He would probably regret the fact that there was now less time for leisurely reading and discussion.

Assessment

The other feature that our Diploma student of fifteen years ago would notice is that although the linguistic components are still examined traditionally, the TEO component is not. Just as M Ed students are required to write a dissertation, so Diploma students must submit a 'project': this is a smaller, more practical piece of work than a dissertation, and often involves the preparation of materials for teaching or testing purposes. The marks awarded for this, together with the combined 'core' and 'elective' assignment marks, constitute the TEO examination for Diploma students. The result of this assessment is recorded alongside four other marks, those for General Linguistics, Contemporary English, Phonetics and Teaching-Practice. All five components must be passed.

M Ed students have to pass in three areas before being allowed to proceed with their dissertation:

1 General Linguistics, Phonetics and Contemporary English (combined);

2 Psycho- and Socio-Linguistics (combined); and

3 Teaching English Overseas.

Area (1) comprises three traditional examination-papers but (2) and (3) are assessed by means of 'take-home' or 'open-book' exams.

A personal view

It seems to me that most of the developments in our work at Manchester over the past decade or so have been brought about by the growth and changing pattern of world demand in ELT, rather than by any major change in the theory or practice of teacher-training. A few years ago, one might have thought that the advent of closed-circuit television would revolutionise teacher-training, but it has not. Nor do I think that the use of videotape recordings will necessarily improve the quality of teacher-training, any more than the use of language laboratories necessarily improves the teaching of English in schools. A reasonably sensitive human being can observe as effectively as, and be much more tactful than, a TV camera.

I do not think the nature of my job has changed very much. Trainees always did and still do demand a practical course: they need the confidence that comes from knowing that the methods offered to them really will work in (say) a class of forty-odd unmotivated pupils; and our overseas teaching-practice for young British trainees is invaluable in this respect.

They still want to know the latest theories and approaches; and we still have to take care that in presenting these we do not merely destroy the teacher's confidence by making him feel that the methods he has been using, possibly for several years and perhaps quite successfully, are regarded as outmoded and scorned. Proselytising has, or should have, no place in teacher-training. Indeed, having seen the see-saw of fashion in methodology tilt first one way then the other, I have increasingly felt the need to adopt a central stance, to keep my balance (by swaying away from the fashionable end!) and to encourage trainees to keep theirs.

Finally, I think there has been a change of attitude in our training. The growing realisation that English is an important tool for national development and international professional contact in so many countries has produced a sense of involvement in issues much wider than schoolteaching per se, issues that are sociological and even, in the best sense, political; such that the teaching of English overseas is regarded not as a form of aid, but as a form of help.

MICRO-TEACHING IN TEFL TEACHER TRAINING

Geoffrey Broughton, University of London Institute of Education.*

It was the advent of the portable videotape recorder in the early 1960's which gave rise to the variety of approaches to teaching practice which we now call micro-teaching. Previous attempts to allow teachers in training to hear or see themselves in action had been constrained by the limitations of the taperecorder or the expense of filming and the time lag between shooting and showing the developed film.

Other factors during the last fifteen years which have influenced micro-teaching procedure have been the growing interest in curriculum development, in group work and individualisation, in team teaching, in simulation and role-play, in classroom interaction and the identification of micro- and macro-goals.

This paper discusses the role and nature of micro-teaching in two EFL teacher training courses – at PGCE and Diploma level – in the London Institute of Education. Over the years emphases have shifted somewhat according to current pedagogical interests both general and personal to the tutors involved, no less than with changes in methodological theory. But although audio-lingual procedures have given way to cognitive and cognitive to communicative and functional, although some years have been marked by a heavy emphasis on production of visuals and others by experimentation with notions, we are conscious of a pattern of principles which we regard as a valuable instrument which integrates well with other components of our courses.

In essence, our micro-teaching, as opposed to normal class lessions, involves a reduction in the number of learners, in the length of the teaching and in the pedagogical goal. It is simulation in that it is peer group teaching; it is intensive practice to the extent that the micro-teaching sessions are blocked into a number of consecutive days; it is highly evaluative by nature of our standard practice of videotape recording which affords immediate feedback, tutor comment and discussion.

Many of the constraints giving rise to the above are pragmatic: the number of tutors, rooms and videotape sets available dictates the numbers of groups into which we can divide course members: group size in turn affects the average length of the micro-lessons. The number of days given over to micro-teaching practice is influenced by the demands of lecture courses and even public holidays not to mention the varying tolerance levels of particular intakes of students.

*This paper was written after a discussion with my colleagues at a Staff Seminar and I would like to acknowledge their contribution to the ideas expressed here. This does not mean that they would necessarily agree with everything I say.

Having experimented with importing groups of 'genuine' learners, and the even more complex mode of taking mobile equipment into schools, we are strongly in favour of peer teaching. This not only avoids logistical problems like transport, providing waiting-room and toilet facilities for visiting groups, and even inducements for reluctant guinea-pigs, but keeps any disappointment and embarrassment 'in the family'. More importantly, it permits the teacher to focus all his attention on what he is doing as a teacher: for once distractions like discipline, interruptions and the noisy class next door can be discounted.

It need hardly be pointed out that we do not regard micro-teaching as a substitute for genuine classroom experience. All our students have at least two years practical teaching behind them and acknowledge the artificialities of micro-teaching. But as in other kinds of training in which simulation is involved it can make a noticeable contribution to later professional performance: in our case, subsequent teaching practice.

For a typical micro-teaching session, then, at the London Institute, the group of students number between eight and fifteen, ten being regarded as comfortable. Each group is attached to a tutor, is allocated a teaching room and a set of videotape recording equipment. The micro-teaching practice is blocked into a period of between six and twelve consecutive days, the mornings being devoted to the actual teaching, afternoons given over to preparation and discussions. In this major mode, the tutor distributes in advance a sequence of daily teaching tasks common to all members of the group, so that on a given morning each student in turn teaches the assigned topic, within a fixed time limit of, say, five minutes. The video recording of this activity invokes discussion of the playback, comparison of performance and reteaching when required.

The role of the supervisor in this mode is initially as assignment setter, as participant in the taught class, as discussion leader after playback. More importantly, he offers his comments and guidance on the shared experience, guides the non-teaching members of the group in what to look for in the teaching and – in some cases – handles the practice group like a master class in which he demonstrates selected techniques.

The students, in addition to their own five-minute performances, play a number of roles. Each takes a turn to operate the recording machine and the camera.

One is given the job of time-keeper. The other students form the simulated class. The degree of simulation to be encouraged is a delicate problem. Clearly they need to apply sufficient willing suspension of disbelief to make sense of a micro-lesson being given allegedly to a group of secondary beginners: in such a case they are expected to draw on their experience and control their English accordingly. On the other hand, a number of enthusiasts, over the years have,

in the name of realism, so taken upon themselves roles of problem learners, deaf mutes or even relatives of an imaginary Minister of Education that we are persuaded to encourage a bland non-controversial attitude from the 'class'.

It is during playback and evaluation, however, that they are encouraged to offer constructive criticism. Perhaps the success of the whole procedure depends upon the mutal trust and group spirit which is usually engendered by working closely together over a concentrated period, during which each teacher's professional strengths and weaknesses are laid bare before his peers. But once an atmosphere of group integrity and therapy has developed, the playback discussion and suggestions reflect the wisdom, sincerity, generosity and plain classroom good sense that one expects from a group of experienced teachers.

On the question of evaluation, we have used the technique of immediate playback and discussion after each performance, and also the alternative approch of recording all teachers before a longer viewing session. The advantage of the latter approach of a slight saving in time is generally outweighed by the immediacy of feedback in the former, which also lends itself better to the occasional reteach.

During the afternoon preparation of assignments for the following day, each group usually meets together, however briefly, in order to ensure an agreed interpretation of the assignment, but, more importantly, to make sure that it is realised in a variety of ways. Tutors make themselves available for consultation at these times.

Thus far we have discussed the major model of micro-teaching which the Department follows. But with eight tutors micro-teaching with up to a hundred students in one term, it would be surprising if other models were not followed.

One alternative model involves small groups of four or five students working on assignments independently and without supervision. Their task is to produce five-minute recorded lessons which have been discussed and polished before being taped. The playback takes place in plenary session with the supervisor and the usual discussion and criticism follows.

A second mode of cooperative micro-teaching requires the students to teach one after the other for up to twenty minutes in such a way that the individual contributions articulate into a larger lesson unit. This linear form of team-teaching has the advantage of bringing to micro-teaching both a greater degree of cooperation between teachers than in the major model, and brings to their consciousness the varying pace and rhythm of larger teaching units.

This last approach is one which grows naturally out of the major model. Indeed

during a typical nine-day teaching practice the first seven days often follow the major model, which gives way in the last two to the cooperative sequence.

Whichever model is used, however, we find that the teaching assignments must be carefully worded: if too vague they are misinterpreted, if too specific they inhibit imaginative teaching. The following sample assignments have been found to be workable:

1 Introduce to a class of secondary beginners an eight-to-ten word lexical set, using visuals.

2 Tell a story appropriate to adult beginners which involves the use of props and exposes the learners to five or six early prepositions.

3 Using the blackboard only, practice with a secondary intermediate class exponents of the pattern Having V^1 -ed, S, V^2 -ed.

4 Elicit from an intermediate adult class a dialogue in which the function of seeking permission is prominent.

We find that the longer each group works together, the more imaginative and purposeful the teaching becomes. Indeed the first session or two are often the most critical. As a means of priming the pump, as it were, we have collected over the past few years a number of specimen recordings of micro-lessons which, with the agreement of the teachers concerned, we show to subsequent groups. This can be a stimulating start to micro-teaching, but it has the potential danger of encouraging modelling. We have no Departmental 'line' to be followed, but accept that there are several kinds of excellence. Any recordings of previous micro-teaching sessions are shown explicitly as examples of how others have responded to the challenge.

This inspirational use of the small screen reflects our belief that micro-teaching is central to our basic aim as teacher trainers: to stimulate the professional imagination and improve the expertise of experienced teachers. Usually the micro-teaching session is the first time that even our most experienced students have exposed their professional skills to the criticism of their peers. Unquestionably it is a unique opportunity to witness numerous pieces of teaching activity in a structured way – in ten days a group of ten students records and discusses at least a hundred micro-lessons – often a striking experience for teachers who have traditionally operated behind closed doors. Indeed the breaking of the rarely admitted, but widely prevalent, concept of teaching as the individual smugly doing his own thing to his own satisfaction (and therefore to his students') is a major argument in favour of this kind of peer teaching. At its weakest, this advantage breaks down a teacher's sense of isolation; more strongly, micro-teaching may be seen as a professionally integrating device,

encouraged by corporate preparation and discussion, by the team teaching mode and by the acceptance of the creative function of professional criticism.

Sometimes the raising into consciousness of principles, techniques and skills which, possibly for years, have been taken for granted results from structured observation: at other times it stems from the divergent or convergent discussion after playback. But central to this process of professional training are the wisdom and skills of the tutor. For many of the above advantages of micro-teaching are dependent upon his relationships with the practising group and most of the potential problems of the techniques can equally well stem from him.

Micro-teaching can be deeply and unforgettably disturbing to the participant. We find that any fears and embarrassment for experienced teachers arise not from seeing themselves on a monitor screen for the first time (we are familiar with our own appearance from mirrors and photographs), but from exposure to others in the same profession. The need to avoid the destruction or even damage to the ego of a mature teacher is even greater than in preparing the novice, and a need to protect sensitivities is a constant concern. The less prevalent fear of the presence of a tutor figure sitting in judgment can be avoided by the tutor's participation and exposure to criticism as an equal member of the group.

Group dyanmics can go sour as the result of individuals refusing to accept the conventions or being unusually reluctant to accept criticism, but it is rare for a group to practice micro-teaching together for more than a day or two before a workable cohesion is felt. One immediate way to destroy that cohesion is to admit outsiders as observers, or other non-participants. We have been known to risk offending overseas guests in the Department rather than prejudice the integrity of a micro-teaching group.

Perhaps it is necessary to set our micro-teaching activities within the perspective of the one-year full-time courses of which they are part. We usually place this practice towards the end of the first term, anticipating a traditional school-based practice overseas in the second. Micro-teaching comprises perhaps one-fifteenth of the total duration of the course. We see it as a realisation of many of the principles expounded in our lecture courses, as a natural development of other forms of group work we ask students to do and as a short-term enabling device towards the subsequent and major task of teaching practice proper. Few, if any of our course members in their end-of-course evaluation look back on their micro-teaching experience with anything other than appreciation, and if they did but know it, their supervisors find the procedure equally challenging to their professional skills.

TEACHER TRAINING AT ELTI: THE LANGUAGE LABORATORY COURSE: ELTI and Teacher-Training

Ann Hayes, ELTI, The British Council

The English Language Teaching Institute (ELTI) forms part of the British Council's English Language Division in London. Its three main spheres of activity are direct teaching, materials development and teacher-training, much of our work in the teacher-training field resulting directly from experience built up over the years in the former two areas. When we add to what we have learned in the way of teaching techniques and materials design from our own internal situation, what we have also learned from visting overseas specialists in ELT, and from ELTI staff participation in seminars and conferences of TEFL specialists in the UK and elsewhere, we feel we have something of practical value to offer practising teachers.

Our 'offerings' take various forms. ELTI has produced numerous teacher-training 'packages', in film, handbook, and various other formats, which cover several important areas of ELT work. It receives large numbers of visitors both from UK teaching institutions and overseas, who come individually or in groups, and stay for a few hours only, or on attachments of several days duration. In addition to arranging programmes and demonstrations for such visitors, ELTI staff are frequently asked to conduct courses and workshops overseas for teachers of English, at various different levels and on various different themes. Although such 'away' fixtures as these account for the bulk of our direct teacher-training exercises each year, ELTI also holds a limited number of short teacher-training courses on home ground. The longest established of these is the 'Lab Course', or, to give it its full title –

The Language Laboratory in the teaching of English

The 'Lab Course', a biennial event, has been a regular feature of ELTI's work for the past ten years or so, since, in fact, the heyday of the language laboratory in ELT. Over the years, the content and shape of the course have inevitably changed a great deal, but the basic aims have remained the same – to familiarise course participants with the technical aspects of laboratory hardware; to advise them on the administrative and management problems laboratory facilities invariably incur; and to expose them to new ideas in laboratory software and the methodological implications of laboratory work in a teaching programme.

The course objectives outlined above are wide, and necessarily so, since our course participants come from a wide range of teaching situations in an equally wide range of countries. This year, the twenty-eight course members included

Europeans, Latin Americans, Indians, and nationals of various Middle Eastern and Far Eastern countries. Some were secondary school teachers, some from university English or service English departments, some from teacher-training colleges, some from private language schools or specialist institutions. In addition to the wide range of teaching situations the course had to cater for, there was also the problem of individual participants previous experience with language laboratories. Although we do not accept as course members teachers who have had no experience with laboratories, it is obvious that in a group such as that outlined above, some will have had a very limited experience indeed, while others may have been using their laboratories in a fairly sophisticated way for a number of years.

The needs of the participants varied in accordance with their backgrounds. Some merely wanted to learn how to use their laboratories to better effect in general English programmes, from the point of view of methods and materials. Others were more interested in the role of the laboratory in ESP courses. Others again were concerned more with the administrative aspects of laboratory facilities, or with the materials production side, rather than either of the above.

The problems involved in constructing a satisfactory course for participants with such widely divergent needs and backgrounds are obvious. ELTI's solution is to have a course framework which provides for both a general and more individualised approach to participants' needs and a course content which covers as fully as possible all relevant aspects of the language laboratory in any teaching situation, ie hardware, software, methodology and management. A generous staff-student ratio of 8 teaching staff and one technical officer goes a long way towards making such an approach feasible.

The framework of the course

The course, which runs for two full weeks, is structured around a basic framework of plenary sessions, group tutorials and workshop sessions, fitted into four slots of approximately an hour and a half's duration each day.

The plenaries comprise lecture/demonstrations to the whole group on various aspects of laboratory materials and their methodological implications and are timetabled into the programme once, sometimes twice, daily, usually in the first slot of the day. Each presentation takes the form of team teaching by two members of ELTI staff, with the dual purpose of providing variety within each session for the audience, and of not overtaxing any single member of staff for the rest of the day's programme.

Group tutorials are designed to cover more practical aspects of laboratory work or, in some cases to act as extensions of the plenary sessions. For these, the course participants are divided into small, manageable groups of nine or ten

each. With a notional course complement of thirty this means three tutorial sessions going on at any one time, and that groups attend them on a rota basis, ie if Group A is timetabled for 'Orientation to the Laboratory' in the first slot on Monday afternoon, Group B will attend that tutorial in the second afternoon slot, and Group C sometime on the Tuesday. Again, the group tutorials are double-manned, the presence of two members of staff being vital for the more practical sessions, as well as facilitating a more individualised approach to the various course participants' needs in each area covered.

Finally, there are the workshop sessions, where the course participants are divided into even smaller groups, each group of four, under the supervision of a single member of staff, being given a practical task in laboratory materials development to accomplish. The division into groups for this part of the course is made as far as possible on the basis of individual participants' teaching situations, ie we attempt to keep secondary level teachers together, university level teachers in another group and so on. The role of the member of staff in charge of each group is one of consultant/adviser rather than director of the writing or production process.

A quick glance at the timetable of this year's course at the end of this article will show that although a fairly intensive programme is built up from the three types of session above the occasional free late afternoon slot provides an opportunity for course members to take up various options open to them, or to pursue their own personal interests. Some light relief is also provided by a day visit to Cambridge in the second week to view the video-laboratory facilities there, as well as by weekend sight-seeing trips of a distinctly non-professional nature. As in all courses of this type, much valuable work is done over lunch or at evening social gatherings, where staff and students have an opportunity to discuss various individual problems in an informal and relaxed setting.

Course content

The plenary sessions, as already mentioned, attempt to acquaint course members with basic principles and new developments in laboratory materials design, and the methodological implications of these in both classroom and laboratory work. Although in past years the main emphasis had been on oral practice materials for the laboratory – the typical dialogue and drills unit – this year a lot more time was given over to showing how the laboratory could be used for various kinds of listening work, and mention was also made of the laboratory's potential in a couple of completely different language teaching spheres, those of reading and simulations. The plenary sessions of the '78 Lab Course covered:

1 The role of the language laboratory in ELT today. This introductory lecture summed up both the advantages and disadvantages of language laboratories in general, and looked at the changes which have taken place in ELT over the

past ten years, justifying the role of the laboratory in present-day circumstances, even though it first gained popularity and wide-spread acclaim as a teaching aid in the days of the structuralist/behaviourist approach. The indusputably important role of the laboratory for both oral practice and listening work was stressed, and the audience was invited to consider its potential in the light of current ELT concerns, such as notional/functional approaches to language teaching; communicative practice; the integration of skills in learning programmes; individualised learning etc.

2 Dialogues. This was the first of three sessions dealing with the traditional dialogue and drills laboratory unit, and aimed at making clear to the audience the essential features of a good dialogue through demonstration of various ELTI materials. Basically, two types of dialogue were treated – the straightforward presentation dialogue demonstrating the teaching point(s) to be covered in the subsequent drills; and shorter linking dialogues between drills which serve to contextualise fully a complete laboratory unit. The list of criteria for a good dialogue which issued from this session could be used as a basis for dialogue design, or as a check-list in the evaluation of published materials.

3 Drill design. Again the aim here, through demonstration of various types of laboratory drill, both published and ELTI-produced, was to answer the question: "What makes a good drill?" By taking into consideration such features as: the actual language used in the drill; the meaningfulness of the drill; the interest it is capable of sustaining in students; the technical quality of the recording; the aptness of the cues etc, a list of criteria for effective drill design was drawn up which would prove useful both in the writing and evaluation of laboratory drills.

4 Class preparation for laboratory work. This session was essentially a practical demonstration of how a teacher could prepare his class for laboratory work, the relationship of thorough preparation to successful laboratory practice being a point which was emphasised whenever possible during the course. A tightly contextualised unit on modals at a lower intermediate level, and a more loosely contextualised one on nominal groups for advanced classes, both ELTI-produced pieces of material, were taken as examples. It was then demonstrated how, by exploitation of the unit dialogues, and by adaptation of the unit drills for classroom use, with carefully chosen supporting visuals, a class could be prepared for both the language and the format of the drills they would have to cope with in the laboratory.

5 Listening comprehension (a) The first of a series of sessions designed to show how the laboratory can be exploited for training listening skills, this one outlined the various skills the successful listener must be adept at, and then showed how traditional 'listening comprehension' procedures of asking post-listening questions failed to elicit practice in any of these essential skills. The necessity

of a pre-set listening task to give students a sense of purpose in their listening was stressed, and a variety of ELTI listening materials with different types of accompanying worksheet tasks was demonstrated in order to bring the point home. The relative merits of different kinds of listening material – scripted, authentic, and simulated authentic – were also discussed in this session.

6 Listening comprehension (b) Developing the themes of listening with a purpose and integrating listening with other language activities, which had been brought out in the previous plenary, this session went on to demonstrate parallel listening and jigsaw listening techniques. These are basically devices whereby the listening text, and its accompany task(s), act as an input for oral practice. The terms are self-explanatory. In parallel listening, students are in three or four groups in the laboratory listening to three or four different but parallel recordings on the same subject, say, different versions of an incident by each of the characters involved in it, or different opinions on the same topic, after which they all come together for discussion of the subject. In jigsaw listening, the groups again listen to recordings concerning the same story or situation but each group's recording contains a different version with different points of information in it. The subsequent discussion in groups aims at a pooling of the information contained in all the recordings, the putting-together of a complete picture from all the pieces of the jigsaw.

7 Evaluation and adaptation of published materials. Although most of the plenaries concentrated on ELTI materials and techniques, we fully realised that most of the course participants had to rely heavily on published materials in their teaching programmes. They had no access to our materials, and were for the most part in no position to undertake home production of materials on any great scale. This session, therefore, aimed at presenting a check-list of evaluation criteria to be used in the selection of published materials. General criteria applicable to any type of teaching material were discussed from the point of view of how the material would meet the teaching objectives; how it would fit in to the local teaching situation; the quality of the material itself; the ability of local teachers to handle it; and the potential effectiveness of the material for the particular learners in question. Additional criteria for main courses with a laboratory component were covered, and reference was also made to features of good drills, dialogues and listening materials already mentioned in previous plenary sessions. Since it was obvious that no published material could be expected to meet all the requirements of such an exhaustive check-list, suggestions were given as to how published materials of various types could be adapted to suit a particular teaching situation.

8 The language laboratory and reading. This session, given by a guest speaker, attempted to show how the laboratory could be used in a sphere with which it is not normally associated, that of training reading skills for academic purposes. A self-study reading unit for use in the laboratory was demonstrated, showing

how the taped text can serve both as a support to the worksheet, with recordings of all the text and of essential instructions, and also as a source of feedback. In order to avoid the danger of confusing the teaching of reading comprehension with the testing of listening, stress was laid on the fact that the important information to be gleaned from the text should never be listening-dependent.

9 The listening library. Returning to the theme of listening, this session also dealt with the use of the laboratory in the library mode for self-study, as did the previous plenary on reading. An explanation was given of how a listening library can be incorporated into a teaching programme, and how it should be organised, from the point of view of the types of material it might contain and the instruction cards for each programme which tell the student exactly what to do. The value of a listening library, in that it gives students an opportunity to listen to recordings which interest them with the support of scripts or transcripts, was demonstrated to the course members by giving them a short practical session in using a listening library themselves. They then saw such a library being used by real students in the ELTI film "Activity Days in Language Learning", where the listening room features as one of the four activities on such "do-what-you-want-for-as-long-as-you-want" days, which are now a regular weekly feature of full-time intensive ELTI courses.

10 Simulations and the Language Laboratory. Like the session on reading, this was another attempt to make the course members aware of the potential of the laboratory in areas with which it is not usually associated, this time simulations. It was shown how the laboratory could be used for both the linguistic input (drills) and the information input (recordings) at the preparation stage for a simulation, with some demonstration of ELTI-produced simulation materials of this nature. Course members then actually took part in a complete simulation, "The Canbian Educational Aid Project", designed at ELTI as a teacher-training exercise. This exercise allows teachers to experience role-simulation at first hand, and also shows them how different types of material can be integrated into a simulation. The role of the laboratory work here was as information input, in the form of listening comprehension and note-taking and parallel listening exercises, and as linguistic input, in the form of various functional drills, to prepare for the simulation itself.

The group tutorial sessions are designed, as previously mentioned, to cover the more practical aspects of laboratories and, in some cases, to act as extensions to the plenary sessions. On this year's course nine different aspects of the language laboratory were covered in group tutorials. **Orientation to the laboratory** and **monitoring** were part-theory, part-practical sessions, where the general principles of successful orientation and effective monitoring were first outlined, and the course members were then given respectively a laboratory orientation session themselves, and the opportunity of monitoring one another while engaged in laboratory work.

ELTI's technical officer ran three very practical sessions on **Routine maintenance of equipment, Recording: principles and practice** and **Tape editing.** These tutorials gave course members some idea of the technical aspects of the language laboratory, and even if they did not themselves become technically adept as a result, they realised through these sessions the vital importance of having a trained technician available to any institution with laboratory facilities.

Another practical theme taken up in group tutorial form was **administration of resources.** This covered administrative matters such as premises, budgeting, staffing and timetabling for institutions with laboratories, and also dealt with organisation and storage of hardware and software, as well as different methods of classification and retrieval for laboratory materials.

The remaining three group tutorials were largely supportive of certain plenaries. Viewing the ELTI film *The Tape Recorder in the Language Classroom,* gave course members a further opportunity to see how dialogues could be exploited in the classroom, and how laboratory work could be prepared for through such exploitation. A tutorial entitled **Discussion on listening comprehension** acted as an extension of the plenaries on this theme and enabled course members to talk over their own individual needs and problems in this sphere of materials production with members of staff in a more informal way.

The inclusion of the **exhibition of published materials** as a group tutorial meant that small groups of students could view the exhibition, a collection of laboratory-based materials representing almost every British ELT publisher, and discuss the materials on display with attendant members of staff. Listening posts were set up in the exhibition room so that course members could listen to the tapes as well as examine the books, and the exhibition room itself was kept open for the duration of the course to enable participants to study its contents outside normal teaching hours.

Workshop sessions give course members an opportunity to try their hand at laboratory materials production. Although we fully realise that very few of them are in a position to produce their own materials in their local teaching situations, we still feel that this is a very valuable exercise in that it gives them an insight into both the problems and possibilities of laboratory materials design. Even if they never attempt to produce a piece of laboratory material in their teaching careers again, the fact that they have once tried to do so usually enables them to judge commercially available material in a more realistic light.

Two separate projects were set this year for the workshop sessions. The first week's project concentrated on oral practice materials and each group was given a different published drill on a structural point as a basis for their work. Each drill was, in its own way, a very bad example of laboratory materials design, and the groups' first task was to analyse their respective drills and say exactly why

they were so bad – an obvious link with the plenary on drill design in the first week of the course. The next step was to write another, better drill around the same structure, add a dialogue to introduce the teaching point – again an obvious link with the plenary on dialogues – and, if possible, another related drill, or drills, to round off a complete laboratory unit. These units were then recorded by the group members themselves, which involved the practical application of advice given in several group tutorials, and finally played back for evaluation by a staff panel in a plenary session at the end of the first week. To overcome the problem of duplicating scripts at short notice, each group was asked to write out its drills, dialogues, cue sheets etc on OHP transparencies, which made them immediately available to all at the evaluation session.

The end-products of the project work were truly impressive. Considering that only four and a half hours were made available for the writing, scripting and recording of the project, seven very professional structural units for laboratory use resulted from it. Most of the criticisms made at the playback and evaluation session concerned minor points which, with more time, the participants would probably have righted of their own accord. The general standard of the work was very high indeed.

The second week's project was again directly linked with the main plenary sessions of that week, and was based on listening comprehension. Each group was given a different tape recording, ranging from a pop song to highly specialised lecture material, and was asked to devise one or more listening tasks for the recording, complete with worksheets. They were free to edit the texts they were given, add to them, re-write and re-record, or even discard them completely and create new scripts, if they so wished. Again, their work was presented and evaluated by a staff panel in a plenary session at the end of the second week, and, again, the results were of a very high standard. Most of the techniques demonstrated in the plenaries on listening had been incorporated into the work of one group or anotner, and, without exception, successfully.

The groups retained the same composition for both projects. We had considered redividing them for the second week's workshop sessions, but, in as much as the original constitution of the groups was based on the type of institution the participants worked in, an equally valid redistribution for the second week would have been difficult. In addition, the groups had, for the most part, jelled so well by the end of the first week that we were loath to interfere with such well formed working relationships at this stage. The course participants certainly enjoyed their materials development work, and claimed to have learned a lot from it. It certainly gave them the opportunity to internalise and put into practice many of the ideas which were presented to them in the plenaries.

As a practical souvenir of the course, each member took away a set of cassettes, provided by themselves, containing the recordings of every group's project work,

along with the accompanying transcripts and worksheets. They were also issued with the ELTI handbooks *'Language Laboratory Management'*, *'ELT Materials, Design and Use, No 2: Oral Practice in the Language Laboratory*, and *'ELT Materials, Design and Use, No 5: The Listening Library'*. In addition to these three documents, each participant managed to build up a sizeable folder of handouts and sample materials distributed at various plenary and group tutorial sessions. Thus, we hoped, they would later be able to reflect at their leisure on the mass of information and ideas they had accomulated over a very intensive two-week course.

Conclusion

The '78 Lab Course proved a resounding success, for both students and staff. They learned a lot from us and from each other, and we learned a lot from them.

A course framework of plenary sessions followed by practical group work is no novel concept in teacher-training, but we feel that our "three-tier" adaptation of this – plenaries with the whole group; tutorials on practical aspects of laboratory work and as extensions of the plenaries with smaller groups; and workshops for materials production with even smaller groups – works extremely well.

In addition, what would seem at first sight to be a weakness in the course content, ie its attempt to cater for all needs so that not every part of the course could be equally relevant to all participants, turned out to be its strength. For the more one considers the subject of 'The Language Laboratory in the Teaching of English', the more one realises how very closely linked the various aspects of it are – the administration, the hardware, the software, the methodology. And the more one realises that the basic facts are applicable at all levels – secondary, tertiary, adult – and in all situations – general English, English for academic purposes, English for occupational purposes. We did not, therefore by attempting to cater for all needs, end up by pleasing no-one. On the contrary, the course participants came to see how tightly integrated all aspects of the language laboratory are, and learned how to apply the general principles and techniques they were offered, with the necessary modifications and adaptations to their own particular teaching situations.

COURSE PROGRAMME

Sunday 11 June

1900 An informal dinner at the Hostaria Romana, 70 Dean Street, W1 to meet the Course Director and British Council staff

Monday 12 June

0900 Leave Great Western Royal Hotel, for the British Council Students' Centre, 11 Portland Place, W1N 4EJ

0925 Assemble in the Lecture Room

0930 Welcome and introductions

1000 Coffee

1030 Plenary Session: THE ROLE OF THE LANGUAGE LABORATORY IN ELT TODAY

1130 Group Discussions

1230 Lunch

1430 Group Tutorials: 1

a. Orientation to the laboratory

b. Routine maintenance of equipment

c. Exhibition of published materials

1530 Tea

1600 Group Tutorials: 1

a. Routine maintenance of equipment

b. Exhibition of published materials

c. Orientation to the laboratory

Tuesday 13 June

0930 Plenary Session: DIALOGUES

1045 Coffee

1115 Workshop Session: Project 1

1230 Lunch

1415 Group photograph

1430 Group Tutorials

a. Exhibition of published materials

b. Orientation to the laboratory

c. Routine maintenance of equipment

1545 Tea

1615 Group Tutorials: 2

a. Monitoring

b. Recording: principles and practice

c. Film: Using the Tape Recorder

Wednesday 14 June

0930 Plenary Session: DRILL DESIGN

1045 Coffee

1115 Workshop Session: Project 1 (Option: Handling the Laboratory)

1230 Lunch

1400 Group Tutorials: 2

a. Film' Using the Tape Recorder

b. Monitoring

c. Recording: principles and practice

1500 Tea

Thursday 15 June

0930 Plenary Session: CLASS PREPARATION FOR LABORATORY WORK (DEMONSTRATION)

1045 Coffee

1115 Group Tutorials: 2

a. Recording: principles and practice

b. Film: Using the Tape Recorder

c. Monitoring

1230 Lunch

1430 Workshop Session: Project 1

1530 Tea

1600 Recording: Project 1

1815 Reception given by the British Council at 10 Spring Gardens, SW1

Friday 16 June

0930 Plenary Session: LISTENING COMPREHENSION: 1

1045 Coffee

1115 Plenary Session: Playback and evaluation of Project 1 (staff panel)

1230 Lunch

1400 Workshop Session: Project 2

1545 Tea

1615 Group Tutorials 3

a. Discussion on Listening Comprehension

b. Administration of resources

c. Tape editing

Saturday 17 June

Free for shopping

Sunday 18 June

1000 Leave by coach for tour of Chartwell and Hever Castle

1700 Leave Hever Castle for the Great Western Hotel

Monday 19 June

0930 Plenary Session: LISTENING COMPREHENSION: 2

1045 Coffee

1115 Workshop Session: Project 2

1230 Lunch

1430 Plenary Session: EVALUATION AND ADAPTATION OF PUBLISHED MATERIALS

1545 Tea

1615 Group Tutorials: 3

a. Administration of resources

b. Tape editing

c. Discussion on listening comprehension

Tuesday 20 June

0830 Leave the Great Western Royal Hotel by coach for Cambridge

1030 Visit to the Department of Linguistics Language Laboratory, University of Cambridge

1300 Lunch

1430 Tour of the University

1600 Leave by coach for London

Wednesday 21 June

0930 Plenary Session: THE LANGUAGE LABORATORY AND READING

1045 Coffee

1115 Workshop Session: Project 2

1230 Lunch

1430 Group Tutorials: 3

a. Tape editing

b. Discussions on listening comprehension

c. Administration of resources

1530 Tea

1600 Options: **either**: Using video **or**: Further practice in laboratory handling

Thursday 22 June

0930 Workshop Session: Project 2

1045 Coffee

1115 Workshop Session: Project 2

1230 Lunch

1430 Plenary Session: ORGANIZING A LISTENING LIBRARY

1515 Tea

1545 Listening Library: practical session

1645 Plenary Session: Film: ACTIVITY DAYS IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Friday 23 June

0930 Plenary Session: SIMULATIONS AND THE LANGUAGE LABORATORY

1030 Coffee

1100	Simulation Exercise: Canbia
1230	Lunch
1430	Plenary Session: Playback and evaluation of Project 2 (staff panel)
1545	Tea
1615	Round up Session
1700	Course disperses

A SELECTION FROM THE PROCEEDINGS OF A CONFERENCE ON TEFL TRAINING
University of London Institute of Education – 20 & 21 April 1978

Prof H G Widdowson:
NOTES ON EDUCATIONAL/VOCATIONAL ASPECTS IN EFL DIPLOMA COURSES

I had better begin by proposing a definition or two.

A course of an educational kind is, I assume, one which has an essentially integrative purpose. It aims to provide the recipient with abilities and mental dispositions which will enable him to play a range of social roles and be an effective member of his society. The emphasis is on versatility, on the capacity to relate particular tasks to a more general context of significance. The central notions here, perhaps, are adaptability and awareness, the development of the whole person.

A course of a vocational kind involves training. This, I assume, has an essentially instrumental purpose. It aims to provide the recipient with a set of skills for carrying out specific practical tasks appropriate to a well defined role. The emphasis here is on the ability to concentrate on the job in hand. The central notions here, perhaps, are application and expertise, the development of one part of the person.

Both educational and vocational courses may use the specific content of a subject area, but they will tend to use it in different ways. Thus in education we might teach Latin or history not to produce classicists or historians but to develop reasoning abilities transferable to other roles like that of an ICI executive or in older days that of a district commissioner in up-country areas of the Indian Empire. The subjects are means to an end. In training the subjects are ends in themselves: instruction constitutes rehearsals of the parts the recipients will actually have to play later on. In principle, the success of education is not, I think, measurable by attainment test. The success of training is.

Of course, educational and vocational are terms which refer to broad teaching intentions. Learners can derive educational benefits from vocational courses and vocational skills from educational ones. Our charges always learn more and less, (not more or less) than we teach them because their individuality does not match our own. Communication is no more complete in pedagogy than in any other social activity.

Now with regard to EFL. Courses of both educational and vocational kinds can make use of essentially the same course content. Thus both might include topics like language study, materials design, teaching techniques. They will

tend to deal with them differently, however. An educational course will use them for exploration, as a means of developing a general awareness of the nature of language and of the pedagogic principles underlying particular teaching practices. A vocational course will use them for exploitation, as a set of possible ideas for immediate classroom use.

The danger of the educational orientation is that it can lead to vague theorizing and an open-ended enquiry into anything remotely connected with language and education. A kind of free fall into speculation without any sense of relevance and purpose. Theory without the attachment to practical life which gives it significance.

The danger of the vocational orientation is that it can lead to the reduction of EFL to a collection of tips and anecdotes, a lack of adaptability to changing circumstances because of an absence of underlying principles. Here there is no significance either because there is no way of knowing what a particular teaching technique or manner of presenting language is significant of.

Obviously in EFL courses we must avoid the extremes. Theory must be related to practice, practice made adaptable by reference to theory. We have to develop an approach to English teaching which is both practical and principled. Language teaching can only be effective in practice to the extent that it has theoretical support.

But how do we achieve this integration of educational and vocational elements? Some people would take the view that we should aim principally at education and allow the students to adduce the vocational relevance for themselves. Others would take a contrary view and insist on practical vocational training. The ill-fated Madras Snowball venture adopted the latter view: thousands of Indian teachers were instructed in classroom techniques without being made aware of their basic rationale. The term Snowball turned out to be remarkably appropriate. It melted. The current notional snowball is likely to meet a similar fate. Because, again, teachers are adopting it without understanding what it really means.

What view one takes on what students can contribute to the integration will depend on what kind of students one is dealing with. If they have had little teaching experience or none at all one will tend to lay emphasis on the vocational element and the main difficulty will be in deciding how the educational context is to be provided. If the students are already experienced teachers, one will tend to go more for education and the difficulty here will be in deciding how to get the students to engage their practical experience with more general theoretical issues. One of the problems we have with our own diploma is that the students reveal considerable variety in educational and vocational background, so we are faced with the familiar problem of achieving flexibility

without losing all coherence of course structure. It is the same problem as that of linguistic description: how do you account for variability while still maintaining order in the system. Order, after all, is crucial. "Untune that string and hark what discord follows."

I think we have to build the integration of theory and practice, of educational and vocational elements, into the actual design of EFL courses. We cannot leave it to the students to work it all out unaided although we can, of course, regulate the amount of aid and the degree of participation by reference to their experience. My own preference would be to anchor any EFL course in practical problems and to extend an enquiry into theoretical issues from this base. This, I think, should ensure the relevance of theory without requiring that this relevance should be judged only by immediate application to teaching problems: there may be occasions when the anchor chain, as it were, is quite a lengthy one. It may also turn out that the theoretical issues take on different relative prominence in this practical perspective from that which they enjoy in their host disciplines.

One further point. I have mentioned practical problems. I do not mean to imply by this that we should be concerned only with matters relating to classroom confrontation. I include also problems relating to the preparation as well as presentation stages of language teaching. It seems to me that even if we are principally concerned with the classroom practitioner we should make him aware of the whole language teaching process and of the wider pedagogic context and significance of his operations. Otherwise we shall again be neglecting the necessary educational dimension. We shall have failed, if we turn out teachers who cannot write materials or material writers who cannot teach.

Discussion

Most of the discussion assumed that the distinction between educational and vocational work was closely related to that between 'theory' and 'practical work'. It was clear that some courses organised themselves with a theoretical input followed by practical work, and the justifications for this were discussed at some length. Some held that the students could relate theory to their own practice, but needed to be given theory; others felt less sanguine about students' ability to make the link themselves. It was pointed out that there was not an either/or choice to be made, and some speakers emphasised the central need for the teaching to concentrate not on the content of either theory or practice, but on the relationship between them as shown in the attitude of the tutors. Discussion then moved to the problem of the constraints of time and teaching needs of specialist tutors on course design. The inevitable bargaining and compromise were considered, and in the opinion of some speakers became almost principles of syllabus organisation, rather than unavoidable evils.

A number of speakers touched on the problem of the theoretical content: should it be entirely linguistic theory? should overseas students returning to situations out of touch with current fashion be deliberately provided with standard, even if outdated linguistic theory rather than the most advanced? were we after knowledge at all, or should we concentrate on skills in relation to the theory? This last point led on to a discussion of methodology, part of which repeated earlier arguments, but some of which raised questions of how to list student needs, whether to ask students for their perceptions of their own needs and problems, and how these considerations affect the teaching style of the Diploma teachers themselves. Was it preferable to start with practical teaching right at the beginning of the course, so that there was a known context in which to apply the theory when it came? Everyone agreed that theory and practice was integrated in their own courses, whether they followed each other, in either direction or were taught concurrently.

Some methodological considerations led into a discussion of whether tutors needed to teach a language regularly themselves, and this led back to a discussion of what practice was anyway. Was a teacher a plumber or a gardener? Was all discussion theory? Was there a theory of practice? What **could** a university course do that was genuinely practice? No one was sure, but it was agreed that a teacher was not a plumber.

Carl James: COURSE DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

In this paper I shall proceed from the general to the particular, first outlining what appears to me to be the necessary 'philosophy' behind the design of Dip TEFL courses, then turning to more specific and practical problems of course content. I shall start off on a somewhat negative note, stating what components of an ideal course have to be excluded on grounds of infeasibility.

The Clientele

The clientele for such courses are overseas or native-speaker graduates with at least two years of teaching experience and who are fully proficient in English. Defining the clientele in this way by itself raises a number of questions. Let me take these in turn. The first question concerns the definition of a 'graduate'. This usually refers to the product of a university, yet we are often in ignorance of the academic standards maintained in overseas universities, and it is not unknown for an overseas Teacher Training College suddenly, and without any substantial upgrading of course-offerings, to be promoted overnight into a university. In short, 'graduate' is a variable term. The native speakers accepted for such courses seem, secondly, to enjoy a latitude which overseas takers do not: whereas the native speaker can be a graduate in virtually any subject, from archaeology to zoology, the overseas counterpart is required to be an English major.

This requirement is one-sided in allowing in native speakers lacking the linguistic and literary sophistication necessary for training in TEFL.

The second question is that of the right mixture of nationalities and native to non-native speakers on a course. What proportion should be native-speakers? Some might argue that none of the places on a course should be allotted to native-speakers, but that special courses for **advanced** ELT should be provided for such clients. The danger here lies not so much in these courses being special, but in the other course – the one for overseas clients – coming to be viewed, by employers, by the lecturers, and even by the students themselves, as in some other way 'special': 'special' in the sense of being diluted for easy consumption by the MA- and PhD-hungry Third World. This is an issue I will not dwell on here, since it is addressed by another speaker, under the title of 'How the Diploma Course relates to the MA'. A second question of clientele-mixture is relevant however. This is the question of specialisation. There are many good reasons besides the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis for each department offering such courses with particular reference to a certain geographical or cultural catchment area: in particular there is the need for the Diploma Course to offer training in a particular paradigm (in Kuhn's sense of the term) or with reference to a particular set of identifiable English-language educational problems and conditions which obtain in a certain country or area, and with which lecturers have familiarised themselves. The Bangor course used to be called an ESL course, but I do not know whether that label was originally consciously applied. Bowing to clients' pressures, we recently relabelled it as an ESFL course: this may have been a retrograde step. The greatest danger I see in non-specialisation, whether this means combining F with S work, or trying to treat TEFL on a global basis, is non-specificity of the instruction. Where the instruction is non-specific it can take two equally undesirable forms: either in an excess of theorising, systems-analysis, and non-committal generalisation; or, the easier way out, in anecdotalism. Where the lecturer feels the need to commit himself to some practical issue, or to demonstrate some teaching technique he will be forced back on his own experience and resort to such an anticlimax as 'Well, look; this is the way I used to do it in Timbuctoo'. Such a strategy is better suited to training under the artisan apprenticeship system than to what might be desired of an academic institution. The relationship between 'education' and 'vocation' (or tricks of the trade) is something which Professor Widdowson has discussed at length in this conference.

What we do not teach

My definition of Diploma Course clients is a useful starting point for specifying Course content, albeit in a negative sense: it suggests what we should not attempt to teach in such courses. There seem to be three things that such courses should not include:

1 The trainees are assumed to be "fully proficient in English", and so there should be no language-improvement component in such courses. To justify this exclusion is not an easy task, however. 'Proficiency' has to be linked to some criterion, preferably an operational criterion defined in terms of the kinds of things which the trainee is likely to have to do in English. During the Diploma year he/she ceases to be a teacher and becomes a student. There is ample evidence (which I hope Mr Wallace will document in his paper) that overseas students are deficient in the English Language skills required to perform efficiently as a student in an English-medium university. This may even be true of students whose initial training, in their own countries, has been through the medium of English, which is enigmatic in itself. I suggest therefore, that there is a need to teach English-language study skills to those students. The second dimension of proficiency relates to the student's ultimate role as teacher. Again there is frequently evidence that these teachers do not have a command of even basic principles of English grammar when they leave Britain after their year. They are going to continue to teach, or expose their students to, erroneous English. This seems a sad state of affairs, and it makes mockery of the courses in advanced transformational syntax that usually constitute an essential component of Diploma Courses. I wish to enter a plea for making basic remedial courses an integral part of Diploma offerings: indeed, the Diploma ought not to be awarded to a teacher lacking the required performance level in English usage. We should concentrate on 'knowing how' as much as we stress 'knowing that' in the context of English usage. This change of emphasis will necessitate revision of the view, prevalent in some departments, that direct language teaching is 'retail' and not academically respectable in the 'wholesale' setting of a university: such an elitist view is, to my mind, in the very least, myopic.

2 The Diploma student is not here for initial training, since he is assumed to have undergone this at home. Therefore the course should contain no broader educational component: no educational psychology; no comparative education, no discussion of the place of, and justification for, Foreign Languages in the curriculum; no historical surveys of FL teaching.

3 It follows from (2) that the Diploma Course should not perform one of the important functions of initial PGCE courses: that of screening students for their suitability to the teaching profession.

What we should teach

So far I have suggested, somewhat negatively, what Diploma Courses ought not to contain. Let me now proceed to suggest what they **should** contain. What we do teach, and where the emphases are to lie, will of course depend on the resources of the particular department concerned. This is a good thing: I would not like to see too much uniformity from the individual departments; in fact I

would prefer more individuality, provided of course that the British Council is aware of, and places students according to, the visible biases of the various departments.

Diploma Courses are administered by Departments of Education and Departments of Linguistics. My positive proposals, which follow, relate to what a Linguistics Department can, and usually does, offer. It differs from offerings from Education Departments, obviously, in the amount of 'pure' Linguistics offered. I consider that the differences between the two types of department are minimal when it comes to the Applied Linguistics and Methods components, with Education departments making up on the Methods component what they lose on the Linguistics side. This is a function of staffing rather than of conscious policies: in Bangor, 25% of the staff of the Linguistics Department are concerned with ELT.

A Linguistics Department offers a course combining Linguistics, Applied Linguistics and Methodology. Under Linguistics we understand courses in approaches to linguistic description, where 'approaches' must not be read as 'models of': in Bangor we have recently dropped the 5-hour Introduction to T-G because it seems to be indigestible to most students in such a condensed treatment, and there is no time for its extension into a 10-hour course. Instead, the 40-hour course on English Grammar introduces T-G passim and informally. The two essential Linguistics components in this general category are (i) objectivity, prescriptivism and descriptivism in one's approach to language, dealing with shibboleths and grammatical fesishes, and (ii) language variety, a course in sociolinguistics and stylistics.

The core of the Linguistics course is **description**: students attend 40-hour lecture courses in English Phonetics and in English Grammar. In the phonetics course there is some provision for performance of segmental and suprasegmental features of English, but not enough, it appears, for there to be any perceptible remedial effects.

Under Applied Linguistics we may include EA and CA, Lexicography, ESP, psychology of language, testing, and syllabus design.

Under Methodology we include: (i) Comparative Methodology, which examines the linguistic assumptions underlying various appraoches (or 'Methods') to the teaching of foreign languages. (ii) The four skills. (iii) Course design and evaluation: students are asked to bring along samples of the materials currently in use in their countries, and are encouraged to evaluate these objectively. (iv) Media exploitation: the language laboratory, visuals, radio, TV, (v) Teacher-training: since many of the Diploma students will return to key positions involving teacher training, this is an important course component. If time allows, an introduction to educational administration can also be laid on.

I have already raised the question of area specialisation. Let me add here that I feel that in the area of EFL methodology there are some. non-third-world, but not only Western European, national groups to whom we have very little to say. They have in these countries in-service training schemes which ensure that the teachers who are likely to be sent to Britain are well abreast of developments in this field. It is usually the Linguistics components of the Course, as well as opportunities for language improvement, which attract such candidates, not the prospect of gaining insights into Methodology. The converse, I feel, applies to most Third-World applicants: they want Methods more than Linguistics.

Methodology of the Diploma Course

As is usual in all training schemes, the method of evaluation strongly determines the methods of teaching on thiese Diploma Courses. If the culmination of the Course is a final exam, the course will revolve round lectures and tutorials; where continuous assessment prevails, more in the way of project work can be attempted. Yet this dichotomy is operative only for the second half of the year. The first term will have to rely heavily on lecturing, since the foundations, especially in Linguistics have to be laid before any project work can be started. Let us not forget that these Courses are postgraduate only in terms of the clientele: in terms of academic level, they tend to be basic and introductory.

With regards to Methods training, I suggest the following:

Microteaching and Peer Teaching
I am putting these two together under the common heading of 'simulation' which I define as "practising on people who are not really pupils" (Whitaker, 1975:2). The main value of these techniques lies in forcing the executant to make **conscious** decisions, decisions which are reached on the basis of insights he has gained from Linguistics, Psychology and Methodology. These decisions concern the level of the putative learner, the classroom conditions, the intelligence, motivation and aptitude of learners. On the basis of his/her presentation, which may be as short as 4 minutes, the trainee then becomes the victim of his peers when they suggest the inadequacies they have perceived. This is a traumatic experience for most teachers, the more so for the more experienced who stand to lose some of their conceits, and the most so if their critics are their compatriots.

One important question is this: Should these simulation techniques be viewed primarily as ways to improve **directly** the teacher's own teaching skills, or rather for his later use at home as a teacher-trainer? In either case, they should experience this ordeal, if only to know what it feels like to be dissected in public, and, equally important, to see what can go wrong in the setting up of such micro-teaching and peer-teaching sessions.

The language taught need not be English: the student can teach a feature of his L1 to his peers, and the success of his presentation can be directly gauged by their knowledge of that feature at the end of the session. Disbelief needn't be suspended so high.

Demonstration Teaching

During their stay in the UK, these students have the right to see what we consider to be exemplary teaching. This need not be EFL teaching, but can be good Primary School Teaching, or good French teaching in a Comprehensive school. This exposure to good teaching can be mediated in three ways:

1 the EFL tutor can demonstrate, either in a school, with foreign students of the science faculties in the same University, or with the Diploma students themselves. I consider the second option – that involving science students – to be the most useful. It is a great pity that some EFL tutors have been discouraged from organising continuous English-language courses for overseas science students on the grounds that this is 'retail'. In fact the ELT enterprise is highly respectable of life, which means both the lives of overseas students in British universities and the lives of the nations whose teachers we are training.

2 Visits can be made to local schools to see good teachers – of any subject – at work. The number of students sitting in on any particular class must be limited to two, and the same pair should stay with the same teacher-and-class. In time, the teacher may feel like involving the students in the teaching – an opportunity that can be exploited in the name of team-teaching.

3 Good teaching may be mediated through film or videotape. There are available the newer BBC/BC films which have happily superseded the 'View and Teach' series. These were shot at various locations throughout the world and will seem particularly relevant to students from overseas. Alternatively videotape recordings can be made of good teaching being done locally or abroad, or in the private (ARELS) schools; and lastly, publishers of ELT courses might make available to departments films of good teachers using their materials. This would conveniently integrate the 'methods' and the 'materials' aspects of the Course.

Teaching Practice

In my view, Teaching Practice (which means short-term but full-time involvement in the life of a school) is infeasible in the context of Diploma Courses, and should be reserved for initial teacher-training. A four-week placement is the minimum to be contemplated if the experience is to be meaningful: and we cannot take 4 weeks out of a 25 week course. However, since, these

courses tend to end about the first week in June, a case could be made for adding a teaching practice on at the end. This could be useful. It could provide the opportunity to do experimental work in teaching which is inferred by the preceding course-work, and so serve as an experimental laboratory. Many dissertations would gain in relevance if conceived and executed in the context of real teaching. I shall not enter into a discussion of where to locate the TP: in immigrant settings in the UK, or in EFL or ESL settings somewhere abroad. It looks as if we'll have to exclude N Wales, however, where the proposed policy is that students engaged in TP must be Welsh-speaking.

Discussion

1 A distinction was made between methodology and methodics, and it was suggested that diploma courses can assume the former, since accepted students would have had teacher training or sufficient experience. But methodics, the relationship between linguistics (in its widest sense) and language teaching, the construction of materials, etc, does need to be taught.

Argument followed about whether this was a genuine distinction, and whether earlier training and/or experience were a guarantee of adequate methodology even if it was a real distinction. Further, there might be much to be gained from going back to first principles anyway, even if the student was a senior person in his own country.

2 It was held important to remember that we get a wide range of students, whose abilities could be plotted on a cline, and perhaps the difference between methodology and methods should be defined in relation to points on a cline also. Micro-teaching was considered a good lead into methodology study for students at all levels.

3 It was also proposed that students be allowed to opt for methodology studies like Curriculum Studies, if they so wished.

4 Teaching Practice: Although we cannot provide conditions which copy the home conditions, nevertheless some speakers felt that adapting to a new school situation was a useful exercise. However, micro-teaching was held by all to be a useful tool. Group teaching reduces student nervousness; so does "talked through" micro-teaching, where the tutor and peers plan the lesson with the teacher step by step as he gives it. Some like to use micro-teaching for spot practice of techniques, others for role-playing whole lessons.

5 There was a long discussion on whether we are "imparting knowledge" or "inculcating attitudes" or "training for skills", and the answers to this question were presumed to have bearing on the mode of teaching to be chosen in Diploma

courses. It was generally agreed that we should be flexible about what our students needed to know, but that in general they needed experience in making decisions in the light of new knowledge. "Knowledge that" should inform "knowledge how". And all modes (lecture, seminar, tutorial, workshop) should be used.

6 Should we give demonstration EFL lessons? If so, to whom? This issue was of interest to most participants, but almost nobody admitted to giving demonstration lessons, though some diploma courses included instruction in another language by way of example – though not very much.

Teaching Observed was praised for its variety, criticised for the way in which only parts of lessons were shown and commentary often obscured the lessons, but it was found useful as discussion point for diploma students.

The problem of finding good teachers in schools to watch was raised. Also the advantages and disadvantages of letting students watch each other on teaching practice – not easy to arrange anyway.

It was suggested that a repository of good film materials would be useful, if it was accompanied by notes, suggestions for use, etc.

7 It was also suggested that either micro-teaching, or a small amount of teaching practice, or teaching films, could be a useful kick-off for a diploma course, since problems arising could be used as a let-in to "theory". There was a long discussion on the relation of theory to practice, with reminders that students often complained that courses were not practical enough, even though at the same time they asked for a rationale on which to base their work. It became clear that more detailed discussion was needed than was possible in this session.

M J Wallace: LANGUAGE SKILLS, STUDY SKILLS AND THE DIPLOMA COURSE

Should there be a Language Skills programme?

We must assume that in most, perhaps all, Diploma Courses there will be two groups of students in terms of language competence:

1 Students who are native speakers or of native speaker standard.

2 Students who are not of native speaker standard.

The second category may consist of:

a Students whose English is adequate, but could be improved, especially in view of the fact that they are going to be models for future generations of English learners.

b Students who have been inappropriately selected, and whose English is such that they may have difficulty in completing their studies.

Overlaying the two main categories (but not, unfortunately, always coinciding with them!) are two further categories: those students who welcome, or indeed expect, formal English tuition on their courses, and those who don't.

So we have groups of students who may need language improvement or may expect language improvement and perhaps both.

There are three possible strategies:

1 to ignore language competence problems

2 to have some kind of "emergency" remedial programme for students where level of language competence gives rise to concern

3 to formally recognise the existence of the need for a language skills programme and to incorporate such a programme into the syllabus.

What should the content of a Diploma Language Skills programme be?

There are several possibilities, eg (none of the following are necessarily mutually exclusive):

1 a purely 'linguistic' remedial programme based on some kind of diagnostic test, or some other assessment of areas of weakness

2 an ESP solution based on the language required for the subjects which the student is going to study taught, ie methodology, linguistics, etc, to be taught either in an integrated way (by the appropriate subject teachers) or as part of a separate language skills programme

3 a 'liberal arts' solution whereby language skills is taught through subjects like English Literature, Current Affairs, British Life and Institutions, etc

4 a Study Skills programme.

All the approaches mentioned have advantages and disadvantages. Some advantages of the Study Skills solution are:

a most students have Study Skills problems – there is a real need

b the need for Study Skills applies to many native speakers as well as non-native speakers, so such a course need not be discriminating

c it can be integrated with any of the other approaches mentioned

Among the problems are:

a timing. Ideally, the Study Skills course should be done **before** the student commences his studies

b how far will the students find the skills useful after the Diploma course is finished, since the majority are not necessarily going on to higher studies?

c how far is Study Skills an individual matter, not generalisable? There is a lot of research going on in this area, but more needs to be done bearing in mind the needs of the foreign learner.

Discussion

1 It was noted that there were different selection and teaching policies in British institutions for TEFL students, and that the Northern universities and colleges, the SELMOUS group, had been most active in language development and study skills programmes for overseas students.

2 There was general agreement that good diagnostic testing in the home country and/or on arrival in UK was essential, and the role of the British Council and other bodies in the development and administration of proficiency tests was discussed. It was felt that current procedures did not always pick up problems of eg reading efficiency, or the ability to participate actively in seminars.

3 The general view seemed to be that study skills, more than linguistic ability, needed to be developed by flexible programmes tailored to different students' needs. However, some speakers emphasised that tertiary **teaching** mothods should be improved, that study skills are basically language skills, and that that personal and cultural factors greatly affect learning styles. It was also suggested that, rather than determine a fixed 'ESP' syllabus to be taught to students, we should try to train them to use being in an L2 situation to improve their knowledge of the language independently.

4 The role of native speakers in helping non-native students was discussed, but experience had shown that any direct language teaching was best kept on a voluntary basis.

5 There was a feeling that more 'progressive' methods in tertiary education might be creating difficulties for overseas students and the case for a balanced programme, incorporating good lectures, structural seminars, careful handouts, etc needed to be considered. Moreover, British universities were not, on the whole, interested in study skills programmes for all students on American lines, though attitudes were changing.

6 Practical suggestions made included:

a reviewing the role of interpretation classes for intensive language work

b using study skills periods as demonstration lessons, ie teach for 40 mins and then discuss the rationale, methodology and materials with the students

c setting up projects, syndicate work, and 'Scargill Conferences' for overseas and British students combined

d developing library exercises, selected graded bibliographies, etc to improve reading strategies.

Conclusion

Although the attitudes of institutions and abilities of overseas TEFL students varied considerably, we should continue to explore ways of making our students' learning more effective.

WHY NOT B.Ed. (TEFL)?

Ian Dunlop, The English Language Centre, Brighton

At the ARELS [1] Conference in Bath in 1976, Professor Strevens [2] put forward the suggestion that Teacher Training in TEFL could be organised in Modules or Units. Since then the ARELS Committee [3] on Teacher Training have conducted a survey of Initial and In-Service Training in TEFL and support for a modular or Unit/Credit system has been growing steadily. It is the contention of this paper that the establishment of a unit/credit system leading to a B Ed (TEFL) would give aim and direction both to teachers in the profession of TEFL and to organisers of TEFL Training Courses.

What is the situation at the moment?

The following types of TEFL Training Courses for native-speakers of English all operate at the moment:

> 46 RSA Courses for the TEFL Certificate; a small number of PGCE Courses with a TEFL component; ARELS week-end courses; English International week-end courses; English International Teacher Training Institute (ITTI) four – and twelve – week TEFL courses.

In addition, there are other schools and colleges offering training courses and a great many ARELS schools arrange in-service training for their teachers.

EI (ITTI Certificate) Courses give a good basic training for someone wishing to enter TEFL without having previous experience and RSA Courses are intended for practising TEFL teachers who already have had experience. Week-end courses vary in subject matter from "The problems of Japanese students" to "Teaching Advanced Students" and are useful "one-off" experiences while the IATEFL Conferences bring together teachers from all over the world and with a great deal of varied experience. Individual programmes arranged by schools offer the chance for staff to discuss new approaches and materials.

1 ARELS is the Association of Recognised Language Schools with 73 members in the UK.

2 Professor Strevens is now Director of the Bell Educational Trust

3 The ARELS Committee is chaired by John Webb and includes representatives of the British Council as well as those from ARELS schools. The present article is based on my paper submitted to the ARELS Committee on Teacher Training.

All this sounds very satisfactory but although all this is good in its way there is no coherent system, and this becomes apparent when one begins to answer queries from enquirers about TEFL. The first question usually is:

How do I become a TEFL teacher?

What do you answer when someone rings or asks you this? I say: "Most of us originally seemed to have "fallen" into TEFL but now people ask for both qualifications and experience. So, you could start by taking a PGCE Course with a TEFL component (if they will accept someone without EFL experience) or you can take an English International/International House four-week course (as that's good basic training) or you can join an organisation abroad like the British Centre, Sweden, or the Centre for British Teachers who give basic training before the start of their teaching posts. In any case, you will probably need two years TEFL experience abroad after your basic training before you can get a job at an ARELS language school in this country; and then while doing that you can take your RSA TEFL Certificate."

Next year, I shall be able to add to this by saying: "Oh, and the RSA are also going to run another certificate for intitial training for TEFL* now so that is also a way into the profession."

But what happens if they say: "I like the idea very much and I'll do what you say but when I've got my RSA TEFL Certificate what happens then?

Is there any further training in TEFL and what about promotion prospects?

Do you look out of the window at this point? Or do you say (as I do):

"Well, there are a number of week-end courses on offer, and we always pay for staff to attend these and then they report back, and then of course every year we second one person on half-pay to take a post-graduate course (eg in Applied Linguistics), so there is a certain amount of in-service training. And, well, promotion prospects, well we have a certain number of responsibility posts but they are, let's face it, administrative as well as teaching posts and one needs a certain amount of experience for those and umm (and umm)."

Your enquirer at this point may well ask:

* See the Royal Society of Arts "Draft Proposal for an Initial Training Scheme for those intending to become Teachers of EFL to Adults". 1978.

One can then mention a career with the British Council, as an English Language Officer for example, or the possibilities that exist in the public sector; but the vast majority of TEFL teachers in the UK work in the private sector and they need the possibility of working towards further professional qualifications which are directly connected with improving their abilities as teachers while increasing their chances of being considered for more senior posts, ie teachers need a career system. Hence the need for a coherent system of in-service training for practising TEFL teachers. Moreover, such a system would need to take into account the fact that teachers cannot be released for long periods of time in order to take further professional qualifications. The system developed by the Open University immediately recommends itself and is the basis of the suggestion below:

A Unit/Credit system for In-Service Training for TEFL Teachers

1 A unit/credit system for in-service TEFL Training should be arranged on the same lines as the Open University courses, so that the emphasis would be on self-study and therefore all the following modes of instruction could be incorporated;

week-end courses, programmed instruction, tutorials, vacation courses.

Different institutions could then arrange component parts of the course but the types of course on offer would lead towards the attaining of a unit. In this way different ARELS schools, English International, and the public sector could all take part in the training process.

2 When fully expanded such a system should be validated by a university (and why not the Open University?) thus enabling a teacher with the full number of credits to be awarded a B Ed (TEFL).

3 Such a unit/credit system should have one unit on general teaching at the beginners, elementary and intermediate levels. Teachers with the RSA TEFL Certificate would be exempted from this unit.

4 The following list is given as a **suggestion** for the units to be included (the items are **not** placed in order of importance):

General techniques of TEFL teaching: beginners, elementary, intermediate
Teaching advanced classes (including the University level)
Teaching writing skills
Techniques of testing
Course and syllabus design

Materials preparation
Educational technology
Evaluation of Teaching Materials
The English Language from the TEFL point of view
ESP and EAP (including preparing students for entry to universities/ polytechnics)
The Psychology of Learning and Teaching with reference to TEFL
British Life and Institutions
Literature in EFL
Teaching Reading and Writing to students who do not use the Roman script
Educational administration

NOTE: the English used by the candidates in their answers would be included in the evaluation of candidates' performance.

The objection will immediately arise that a great many of these items are dealt with in RSA courses or university courses in Applied Linguistics. The problem is one of depth. Each unit should be dealt with in the depth needed for useful practical application of that subject in a language school or TEFL Department in an FE College; it should carry the knowledge given by an RSA Course further but not as far as the post-graduate research level. Further, there are fifteen suggested units in the list given above and it would be a matter for discussion if all fifteen should be included in the unit/credit system, or if there should be choices (or naturally if there are other and better suggestions). The above list has been given to show what might be included in such a system; the suggestions have been made to arouse discussion of what the content of a unit/credit system might be; for that there should be discussion of a unit/credit system for TEFL training, there is no doubt. There must be discussion of not only "what units" there could be in such a system but what the content of each unit should be; discussion is needed as to the modes of presenting the content of each unit and the time scale envisaged for dealing with each unit; and the question of validation must be explored. All this will take time, but not too much time as it is important to teachers that there should be a system for career development in TEFL. Both the private and the public sector would benefit from this and working together they could create (why not?) a B Ed (TEFL).

TEACHER TRAINING: IN PROGRESS

Ted Rodgers, Curriculum Research and Development Group,
University of Hawaii

My remarks will be directed to some general teacher training concerns but will I hope, contain some rather specific proposals based on specific teacher training experience. My remarks are general in that they ignore, for the most part, the rather traditional line between pre-service and in-service training. They are also general in the sense that they apply to and are drawn from teacher training experiences outside as well as inside that of second language teacher training. Further, my comments are general in that they assume a closer inter-relationship between teacher training and other (assumedly non-training) components of educational programs than is traditionally the practice. This inter-relationship of program elements I find to be particularly close among those programme "out-reach" elements customarily referred to as public relations, evaluation and teacher training.

My remarks are specific in that they are based on actual teacher training programs, and the suggestions offered are intended to be useful to those directly involved in the training of English language teachers. They are also specific in that they concern, principally, the preparation of teachers for a new and specific program, syllabus, or curriculum. This type of teacher training is often referred to as "program-specific" training to distinguish it from more general-philsophical pre-service training or "method-specific" (but **not** program-specific) in-service training.

There are several issues which seem to have been somewhat neglected in recent discussions of teacher training in second language teaching. Most important of these appear to me to be the following:

1 Initial engagement of teacher attention and commitment to a new instructional program

2 Design of training programs in which the methodology of training parallels the recommended methodology for classroom practice

3 Design of training programs in which content is highly familiar but organization or presentation of content is novel (Typically the case in second language teacher training)

4 Long term maintenance of teacher interest and commitment and encouragement of teacher self-renewal following the introduction of a new program

In the present article I want to address myself particularly to issues (1) and (4). I plan to return to consideration of issues (2) and (3) in subsequent publications.

Engagement of teacher attention and commitment to a new instructional program

I suggested above the close interrelationship which I believe exists between public relations, evaluation, and teacher training. The principle factor determining the success of program-specific teacher training and the classroom practice which follows it is the degree of understanding of and commitment to a program on the part of its teachers. The teachers are the most critical evaluators of the program and the principle audience to which program related information is directed. Teachers want to use what is useful. Teachers want their students to progress in their studies and to enjoy the process. At the same time, they want to eliminate major causes of distress among students, the community, and administrators. They want to use tools that help them make this possible. Teachers also want to live up to their single and collective aspirations in teacher performance while continuing to renew and expand their own knowledge. Programs that teachers believe will help them make these gains for their students and themselves stand the greatest chance of being accepted in both the short and long run.

Conversely, teachers resist programs that they feel will make them uncomfortable ("touchy-feelees", community-sensitive content); that will let them down (projectors that won't work, drills that won't teach), that are too complex and clumsy and beyond the time and energy limits of teachers and school staff. They resist programs that are force-fed, and that have been designed and mandated by those who they feel are out of touch with the realities of the classroom. They especially resist programs that they feel will deny them the satisfaction of fulfilling long-standing roles for teaching (witness the failure of "teacher-proof" curricula). In short teachers need to be convinced that the program they are being trained for has been carefully crafted for competent, smooth, simple operation and for maximum enhancement of the teachers role.

It is the function of the **evaluation** component to determine if the above is indeed the case. It is the function of the **public relations** component to communicate the extent to which the above is indeed the case. It is the function of the **teacher training** component to demonstrate the strategies by which teachers will find to their own satisfaction that the above is indeed the case.

Teachers are most convinced of program efficiency and learn most about program operation by seeing and doing. As prelude to the formal component of program teacher training, teachers should have an opportunity to hear

about program detail, inspect program materials, talk with program users, and optimally have a chance to "sample-teach" part of the program themselves. In an ideal situation all of these precede any decision on the part of teachers as regards participation in program use and its consequent training.

(I appreciate the fact that the "ideal" rarely holds and that language teaching programs are more often mandated than self-selected by the teachers. However, since we know that a) program success turns most critically on teacher committment and enthusiasm, and since we know b) that commitment and enthusiasm turn most critically on self-choice, we would expect that the thoughtful (Machiavellian?) program implementation specialist will c) craft a decision structure such that teacher self-choice will inevitably support the intended program.)

As part of the pre-training activities for a major English teaching project in Hawaii (the Hawaii English Project Secondary) a phased-step familiarization/decision-making plan was designed and carried through. The success of this plan (as evaluated by teachers) and its major contribution to later, more formal teacher training, suggest that a detail of this phasing plan might be appropriate here.

H E P Familiarisation/Decision-making Phased-Step Plan (1975—1977)

HEP-Secondary General Information Sessions Offered, Spring-Fall 1975	1 Program overviews (including descriptions of the program, an audio visual presentation showing materials in use in field testing sites, display of field test versions of materials, and commentary by field test teachers) were presented by project staff in each of the seven school districts. Principals and language arts teachers from all 65 schools were invited.
Installation Plan Reviewed by BOE February 1976	2 The pre-installation phased-step plan and installation concept were formulated and presented to the Board of Education in February 1976.
Installation Plan Disseminated, Spring 1976	3 The details of the above pre-installation phased-step and installation concept were presented to all schools. A particular focus of this phase was individual meetings with school principals regarding administrative details of the planned 1977 installation. A brief paper covering details of administrative concern was presented to and discussed with school principals.

Materials Sets Distributed to Districts, May 1976

4 Sample sets of all project-produced program materials (field test versions) were prepared and distributed to each district. These were scheduled for delivery, display, analysis, and discussion at all schools in each district. These display sets remain in the districts for school-requested review and analysis.

Sampler Invitation Extended, May 1976

5 Believing that teachers can evaluate educational materials best by using them, the project team prepared a Sampler instructional package consisting of a representative week of instruction from each of the four major subprograms. Teachers were invited to try out in their regular classes this four-week instructional Sampler in the Fall of 1977. Sixty-three of the 65 schools and 80% of all teachers asked to participate in the Sampler pre-training teaching.

Sampler Inservice Offered and Sampler Teaching Begun, August-September 1976

6 Six all-day Saturday Sampler workshops were offered to those teachers requesting to try out the Sampler in their own classes. These included additional information on the total programs as well as details on how to teach the Sampler. All student and other Sampler support materials were distributed to teachers at these training sessions. School Curriculum Review packets were also distributed to the 65 school principals at this time. Approximately 160 teachers and 50 principals attended these inservice sessions.

Sampler teaching began on the first week of school and was completed for most teachers by January 15, 1977. Approximately 160 teachers and 15,000 students were involved in the Sampler teaching.

(The Sampler concept appears to be a new one in the area of educational product design and distribution. This information comes from the president of a large textbook publishing company and from a director of the US National Institute of Education. In trying to determine the usefulness of the Sampler in the school-decision-making process, comment was elicited

from participating teachers and district personnel. Commentary from all seven District Curriculum Specialists was highly positive).

Curriculum Advisory Services Offered, Fall-Winter 1976

7 A detailed plan to review, analyze, and critique the existing school language arts programs on a school-request basis was designed. This plan anticipated for each school 10–20 hours of out-of-school study of the present and desired school's language arts program. The study group was to include the principal, the school's total language arts staff, librarians, counsellors, special education teachers, etc. plus a representative from the district office and a representative from the program project team. School interest in participating in such a language arts curriculum review was elicited in the form of a questionnaire distributed to all 65 schools.

Schools wishing to participate in the Curriculum Advising were requested to complete a 7 page Language Arts Curriculum Planning questionnaire giving detailed information on and analysis of the present school language arts program. Again, the positive response by schools was 80%.

School Participation Options Exercised, February 1977

8 Schools were asked to indicate their interest or non-interest in participating in the September 1977 installation of the first phase of Hawaii English Program-Secondary.

Schools requesting participation were asked to prioritize the program components they wished to implement and to make school commitments of several specific kinds to insure the success of the implementation.

Specific and immediate commitments anticipated of schools were given as follows:

Any program materials requested by a school assumed (a) teachers' intention to participate in non-compensated summer 1977 inservice training, preparatory to teaching with such pro-

gram materials, (b) teachers' intention to schedule the use during the 1977–78 school year of all program materials requested, and (c) principals' intention to participate in principal inservice training workshops during summer 1977.

Teacher Training Offered, Summer 1977

9 During the summer of 1977, seven teacher training HEP-Secondary workshops were held in various parts of the state. These workshops consisted of a week-long summer training session and two follow-up Saturday sessions, one in the fall and one in the spring. These workshops were staffed by the development team and District personnel.

HEP-Secondary Installed, September 1977

10 HEP-Secondary was formally installed as a partial or full program in those schools exercising the participation option in September 1977. Over 80% of all teachers and all schools participated in this final phase-step ie chose to use the UEP-Secondary Program.

There are several points worthy of emphasis as regards the phased-step plan; First, no stages of the plan were compulsory for teachers or their schools. Each stage of the phasing involved voluntary participation. Teachers could choose to continue to a new phase-step or they could discontinue their involvement by the sample method of non-participation in the next phase-step. The phased-step plan had joint as well as separate activities for teachers and administrators. Participation of a school required involvement of both teachers and administrators. This feature of the phased-step plan, encouraging co-operative efforts of teachers and administrators worked well despite a number of predictions to the contrary. Each phase-step required for teachers and administrators a bit more involvement in time and energy (ie commitment) than did the previous phase-step. The complete phased-step plan covered 24 months allowing teachers time for consideration and discussion between phase steps and the attendant commitments. The phased-step plan was outlined in its entirety to teachers and administrators during phase-step 2, so that the scope, timing and commitments were clearly in mind. The phased-step plan in its entirety, was reviewed for all participants as the first activity in each new phase-step, reminding participants of activities completed and those to come. Finally, the climax of the phased-step plan was an important teacher-school decision – to participate or not participate in a new language teaching program option.

The phased-step plan described above consumed a good deal of time energy,

and, indeed, money to carry through. It is a general truth, however, that much greater amounts of time, energy, and money typically are expended in program (or syllabus) (or materials) design than are put into the broad range of familiarization and training activities required to support the program, syllabus, or materials. I am convinced that in our own project the investment in training-related activities such as the above brought higher return per resource expenditure than did investment in almost any other aspect of project development.

Maintaining teacher interest and encouraging teacher renewal following the introduction of a new program

A frequently observed enthusiasm pattern in newly adopted instructional programs is something like the following:

1 Teachers undergoing program teacher training reach a peak of program enthusiasm at the end of the training period. The challenge of new content or method, the professional stimulation of colleagues, and rising expectations of student performance open to new professional possibilities and aspirations.

2 In the early months of classroom experience enthusiasm declines (sometimes plummets) as the anxieties and problems associated with new programs become realities, as professional isolationism returns and as the hoped-for educational utopia fails to materialize.

3 As program experience and confidence develop enthusiasm begins to climb again usually for a period of two or three years.

4 After several years with no further training or new incentive, the novelty of program use and commitment to program success plateaux and then again begins to decline.

5 It is often at this point that a new programmatic idea appears on the scene, capturing developmental dollars and teacher imagination.

A critical question of teacher training, specifically, and of teacher success and satisfaction, generally, is how teacher support of and contribution to an instructional idea can be maintained and strengthened over time.

One of my colleagues in Hawaii has examined the effects of teacher training and continuing program involvement on what might loosely be called "teacher enthusiasm" – enthusiasm here roughly referring to teachers' satisfaction and continued voluntary association with a particular program or programmatic idea.

His analysis of teacher enthusiasm in the above sense is summarized in the following graph which plots "enthusiasm" curves for the following:

Pattern A Untrained teachers with no field support

Pattern B Trained teachers with no field support

Pattern C Trained teachers with field support only

Pattern D Trained teachers with field support and further program specific training

Pattern E Trained teachers with field support who become part of the Training Cadre

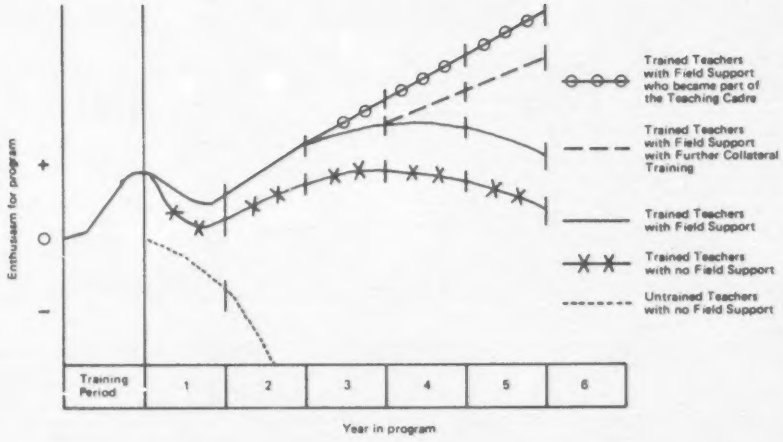

Figure 1

Teacher "Enthusiasm" for Curriculum and Various Patterns of Teacher Involvement

Some more specific comment can be given as regards those successful teachers with highest continuing enthusiasm in terms of the foregoing discussion.

There are several stages which successful and satisfied teachers appear to move through in regards to their involvement in instructional programmes. As in any assumption of stages, the "stage" landmarks are not always well-defined. Not all teachers proceed through all stages or proceed through all stages the same way. Nevertheless, longitudinal observations of successful teacher participation in large-scale instructional programmes, in language teaching and elsewhere, suggest that a sequence of participation stages is valid for most teachers and most programmes.

Let me offer what I feel such an outline of stages looks like and then comment briefly on what I feel are the implications of this "staging hypothesis" for teacher training/renewal over the longer term.

Stages of Teacher Involvement in Instructional Language Programmes

1 Teachers as Self-sufficient Professionals – We assume that teachers are functioning satisfactorily as language teachers prior to the availability of a new language curriculum (**eg** HEP scope – etc) and will continue to do so with or without access to the new curriculum.

2 Teachers as Spectators – Teachers become aware of new programme options through discussions with fellow teachers, presentations by programme promoters, salesmen etc, readings in promotional brochures, professional journals and the like. We assume that teachers try to keep informed of new developments and offerings in their field.

3 Teachers as Sceptics – The information sources mentioned above often tend to over-sell new teaching strategies (programmed learning, individualization, open-classrooms, etc), content theories (structural grammar, notional syllabuses, linguistic approaches to reading instruction, English for Specific Purposes etc,) and specific programmes (Scope, SRA Reading Labs, HEP, etc). Most teachers have, through experience, become somewhat sceptical about elaborated claims for such teaching strategies, content theories and institutional programmes.

4 Teachers as Samplers – When reasonable opportunities present themselves most teachers appear to be willing to try new ideas and products within their classrooms on a "no obligation" – limited time" basis **provided** that adequate materials and background information for trial use are first made available.

5 Teachers as Students – A reasonably satisfactory trial (see 4 above) will often lead teachers to a more thorough study of the new educational idea

and strategies for its implementation. Many commercial programmes are weak on this point ie that of providing detailed professional training for programme understanding and use.

6 Teachers as Adopters – Having sampled a programme and having studied to prepare for more knowledgable use of a programme, the teachers now become fully-fledged users, building all or segmented elements of the programme into an instructional sequence.

7 Teachers as Evaluators – As users of the parts of the programme teachers critique the programme based on internal design strength of the programme itself, student interests and needs, the teacher's own background, training, style, knowledge, interests etc. Use of parts of the programme are seen as highly effective. Use of other parts as less effective or ineffective.

8 Teachers as Adaptors – As a result of programme evaluation and self-observation, the teacher modifies the programme in a variety of ways – shortening or lengthening instructional time for particular elements, deleting or adding activities, re-sequencing programme elements, etc. The teacher personalises the programme.

9 Teachers as Trainers – A teacher experienced in use of a programme takes on informal informational responsibilities in regard to the programme. These responsibilities include supplying administrators, parents, substitute teachers, new teachers, colleagues etc, with information about the programme and how it operates. Often experienced teachers are asked to take on formal training responsibilities in workshops for new teachers, etc.

10 Teachers as Researchers-Designers – A new level of professional programme involvement is reached when the teacher feels confident in taking on major re-shaping of the programme or design of a new programme based on the experience of programme use. The teacher may be requested to submit such designs for consideration by a larger audience of teacher colleagues or may take on a new role as part of a programme renewal staff or as a member of a team undertaking design of an altogether new programme.

One can imagine, then, a teacher information/training program associated with each of these stages. More practically, we can think of teacher training as phased, consisting of at least three linked training programmes each having different sorts of foci and activities.

The first teacher-training phase consists of the kind of activities outlined in the previous section of this paper. This phase focuses on activities leading up to the selection of a program by the teacher (or, as is often the case, selection of the teacher by the program). Training/information in this phase covers teacher stages 1–4.

The second teacher-training phase involves the more traditional kinds of teacher training, which prepares the selecting/selected teacher for use of program materials and methodology. This phase deals with teachers entering stages 5 and 6 and, occasionally 7.

The final teacher-training phase deals with teachers moving beyond a given set of materials and methods around with previous training has centered. Here teacher roles as critic, adaptor, trainer, and inventor become central.

This view of teacher "development" assumes that the best preparation for instructional invention is through thorough grounding in and experience with a specific program. (This view contrasts with the view of teaching which holds that program design (curriculum development, syllabus specification) is (1) relatively easy, (2) first and primarily the job of the classroom teacher (3) made up as you go along and (4) relatively successfully carried out after a generalized, non-program-specific, pre-service teacher preparation. This latter view (sometimes referred to as Tylerian after Ralph Tyler) is one that has dominated teacher pre-service education in the US and, I gather, Great Britain, for some time).

Space precludes an extended discussion of teacher training phase three activities. Three examples must suffice.

1 Theory

Most program specific teacher training programs of the Phase Two type put varying degrees of emphasis on "theory", often regarding the linguistic and learning models which underlie program materials and methods. Our own teacher training experience suggests that teachers, as learners, are initially uncomfortable with and little concerned about the theoretical underpinnings of new educational programs they will be using. They are, at the outset, less concerned about such background information than they are about more practical questions of program preparation requirements, familiarity of pedagogical styles, materials attractiveness and potential program effectiveness. Teachers will often request "theory" after two or three years of program use, but rarely before. This suggests that phase three teacher training may be the best time to introduce program – relevant linguistic and learning theory. This appears to be most successfully done by examining the assumptions underlying some highly-familiar program materials and relating these assumptions to teacher roles as program critics, adaptors, and inventors.

2 Adaption

Program developers customarily refer to the teacher's responsibility to modify

materials as student level, motivation, and interests require. Rarely does training or modelling suggest how such modifications are to be effected, however. A central concern of phase three teacher training involves modification and adaption of known program components. A modification/adaption model displaying alternatives for modification/adaption becomes the focus for this aspect of phase three teacher training. A chart exemplifying adaption alternatives and forming the basis for this part of phase three training is shown below.

3 Self-Awareness

I mentioned earlier that one of the criteria for success of a new program is the prospect if offers for assisting teachers to live up to their single and collective aspirations as teachers. One aspect of phase three teacher training is helping teachers to specify what these single and collective aspirations are and what individual roles in regard to the program (if any) will support these aspirations.

One strategy for opening up discussion of this area of teacher aspiration is through the use of a trainee-designed and administered polls of possible sources of program-related teaching satisfaction. One such poll, designed by program-experienced teachers during "renewal" training took the following form:

Program Participation Attitude Survey

The factors that would (in the past) and would (now) most influence me in becoming associated with a new educational program are:

(Indicate most important factor with No. 1, next most important with No. 2 etc.

Before Program Involvement		**Now**
—	Increase professional salary	—
—	Increase professional status	—
—	Associate with well-known educational figures	—
—	Contribute to achievement of national goals	—
—	Reduce out-of-class preparation time	—

—	Reduce student grading responsibility	—
—	Lend excitement of involvement with something new	—
—	Interact socially with program personnel and fellow teachers	—
—	Exposure to new content in my professional field	—
—	Learn new processes in instructional presentation	—
—	Win approval of educational administrators	—
—	Gain parent admiration and support	—
—	Travel to new locations for training and demonstration	—
—	Make classes easier to teach and manage	—
—	Increase student success in school (eg examination results)	—
—	Increase student success out of school (eg jobs, self-satisfaction)	—
—	Other (specify)	—
—	Other (specify)	—

Teacher discussion during design, administration, analysis, and reporting of this poll proved to be of considerable personal and professional value, as later judged by teachers and trainers.

Let me conclude my remarks by saying that just as I conceive of a teacher's involvement in any language teaching program to be a continually changing one and as I conceive of the training component to be directly related to and supportive of this change so I see myself, as program developer and teacher trainer, in the process of change as regards my relationship with teachers and their teaching.

Comments such as the above are thus now and must continue to be, a report of my own training, in progress.

(My own bias is that program-specific training is the most useful kind of teacher training – be the intent of the training general, philosphical, methodological, or, in fact, supportive of some particular program to be implemented in classroom instruction. Teachers, like most other people, relate best to the specific and concrete. It is easier to grasp philosophical or methodological points of view through the study of the consequences of such points of view in recommended materials and teaching practices than through more abstract lectures and discussions. However, the rationale for program-specific teacher training as a general teacher training model is a longer one than can be offered here).

CREATING A CLIMATE FOR COMMUNICATION IN THE CLASSROOM

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1 This paper is based on the assumption that real communication in the classroom is a major goal in adult foreign language learning both at beginning and intermediate levels.

By real communication I mean here the acquisition (through listening and reading) or the transmission (through speaking and writing) of new, unforeseeable information, which the subjects are interested in acquiring or transmitting without a specific and conscious awareness of the linguistic code being used. In other words, we could say that real communication in English is taking place in a foreign language classroom when one of the students volunteers a piece of information that the other members of the class have not already heard in their native language; when opinions on matters of interest are exchanged, reading passages deciphered or messages written down, with the burden of attention paid to the content dealt with and not to the code as such. In short, when the learners sit in the classroom as full individuals, willing to offer and to accept any kind of personal contribution.

This type of activity is to be distinguished from traditional language practice, where the focus is on the most accurate way of encoding or decoding a message, not on the message itself. Language practice is what our students actually do when we set up dialogues, present reading passages and assign guided compositions with the items to be practiced and the task to be performed already in mind. Being based on teacher-selected items, as well as on reinforcement and correction by the teacher, language practice places strong emphasis on the teacher's leading role and does not seem to allow for much spontaneous interaction among the students.

Especially in the case of adults there seem to be several reasons why real communication should be pursued in a foreign language classroom from the earliest stages of learning. One of the reasons is probably a motivational one. From my experience with adult students I have learned that most of them need immediate practical results in order to persevere in their efforts. They want to be able to use the language they are learning at once, rather than prepare for something which will probably take place in the years to come. Another reason can be found in the fact that communication in a foreign language requires non-linguistic skills which adults can only master through continued experience. A spontaneous conversation, in fact, entails not only the knowledge of vocabulary and structures, but also the courage to initiate or respond, the ability to speak fluently without the fear of making mistakes, and an active system of feedback which may lead to further clari-

fication of the message rather than to the inhibition of the speaker. Similarly, reading for content requires not only specific strategies – such as the use of contextual clues – but also a certain amount of experience in locating the information needed and discarding what is not considered of interest.

2 Important questions arise at this point, however: How can real communication take place in a foreign language classroom, which seems to be an artificial, limited and unstimulating environment for language to function? What can we, as teachers, do to provide space for spontaneous interactions and the expression of authentic interests? How can we favour the creation of a climate conducive to communication? In the course of my teaching experience at the International University with adults at beginning and intermediate levels, I have tried to find an answer to such questions by analysing communication in the classroom from three different perspectives: social, psychological and linguistic.

2a On the social level, I have come to the conclusion that real communication is most likely to take place among students who recognize themselves as members of a community and develop feelings of group solidarity. I am also convinced that the teacher can substantially contribute to the development of community consciousness in the class.

John Gumperz has rightly said that, the two basic conditions for a community to exist are a common location of its members and the beginning of interaction. A language class certainly meets these requirements, because its members not only find themselves in the same room at least two or three times a week but also meet for other courses and spend quite a lot of time together in the same setting.

In its clear, on the other hand, that verbal interaction within a group is deeply affected by the power and status of its various members (see Griffin 1970). And here the teacher has to take a clear stand. In fact, he is the only member of the group who apparently has greater power and a privileged status. He can set rules, choose activities and evaluate results; he can ask all sorts of questions and be rude or condescending, but is always entitled to respect and consideration. In his most traditional role the teacher can undoubtedly inhibit spontaneous interactions not only between himself and every single student but also among the students themselves.

Now, if the teacher really decided to break down the barrier and develop a relationship based on equality and confidence, he should give up his privileges and consider himself a member of the group with equal rights and duties and equal commitment to the common task.

This means, for example, that if he wants to ask his students personal questions

he should also be prepared to answer the same kind of questions. If his students are required to come to class on time or bring in the assigned work on a given date, he should not feel free to arrive later or to return the corrected papers after two weeks. It does not mean, however, that he should give up his role as expert or be concerned with taking up class time. Undoubtedly, he is in a position to make the largest contribution to the accomplishment of the learning task, once goals and strategies have been discussed and agreed upon by the whole class. In my opinion it is not the nature of the teacher's role or the amount of time he takes up but the nature of the teacher-learner relationship that determines the quality of verbal interaction in the classroom (see Brumfit).

In the last few years I have tried to develop this kind of relationship with the various groups I have taught. When I first met a new class I would devote quite some time to an exchange of ideas on the aims and content of the course. In such periods we would discuss the students' motivation and expectations, together with ideas derived from my teaching experience: I would also state my commitment to the common task and urge periodical reassessments of our objectives.

I must say that this approach generally made little or no immediate impact on long-established group behaviour – typical of formal educational institutions in Italy – which tied the teacher to his traditional role, excluding him from any deeper communication. Sometimes I had to wait for months before perceiving signs of confidence and acceptance on the part of the students.

I always found, however, that new classes accepted me first as a teacher and later as a person. Maybe the awareness of the task at hand brought about a need for guidance and dependence, which led them to evaluate my professional skills and my authority before being concerned with my attitude towards them. In this transitional period, I often noticed strong competitive attitudes in the interactions among the students themselves, who would judge one another on the basis of their performance in the task. Due probably to the time they spent together outside of class, however, the students tended to reach a certain degree of socialization among themselves some time before they could look at me as a person and realize that, besides my official role, I had a private life, interests, ideas and emotions which I was willing to share with them.

I generally felt I was being accepted and trusted when the students started to open up and bring their real and individual personalities into the classroom, told their personal stories, spoke about their interests and problems. Dependence and passivity would then give way to a more spontaneous and creative attitude. Except in a few special cases, fear of making mistakes and of ridicule decreased. Real communication in English took place more and more often.

Whenever this need for communication was expressed, I would stop the current activity and listen attentively, trying not to correct if the message was clear. Even if the student, out of interest in the topic, fell back into Italian, I would not interrupt him but I would rather take the first opportunity to reply in English and rechannel the conversation into that language.

These spontaneous contrib tions were very useful indications of the students' communicative needs in English, which I would try to satisfy as soon as possible while motivation was still high and learning consequently easier. On the basis of such interventions, moreover, I could develop or select reading materials whose content was more likely to be interesting for the class. I did not feel that assigning the task of selecting reading materials to the students would have improved the quality of their participation at that point; on the contrary, they might have been frustrated by texts that were too difficult. I thought it was much more important for them to develop an uninhibited approach to the materials presented, so that they would feel free to comment critically on them. In order to develop this attitude, I often presented them with a passage and simply asked if the information was new or interesting to them. If it was not, we talked about why it was not or moved on to something else.

As each member of the class, including myself, slowly revealed himself to the others, by talking about his likes, dislikes, interests and problems, a certain amount of common knowledge gradually built up in the class and enhanced its group image.

b Of course, the extroverted personalities volunteered much more information than the more timid ones and often monopolized class time. When this happened I did not feel it was appropriate for me to interrupt the talkative students to call on the silent ones. I knew that, by doing so, I would disrupt the communication activity already going on, in which the silent students were at least participating as listeners, and in most cases I would not get them to talk because they were not ready or willing to say anything.

In order to investigate the reasons why some students were so reluctant to participate, I tried to develop a personal rapport with them by creating opportunities for seeing them outside class. In most cases, I found that their attitude in the English group was no different from the one they had in any other group. Long years in school, in fact, had conditioned them to be receptive listeners and good readers with no particular desire to assume a more active role. On the whole, however, they seemed satisfied with their learning results and did not show signs of frustration. Only a very small percentage of the students I have taught actually turned out to have serious psychological problems: strong feelings of insecurity, a desire to avoid responsibility, incapacitating self-consciousness and a general maladjustment to the

group. They often behaved in an aggressive and disruptive way, while complaining about learning results.

After a period of trial and error, I decided that my attitude towards the two groups should be completely different: to stimulate participation, I would challenge the quiet students mostly on the cognitive level, by raising problems I knew they were familiar with or by asking them for explanations I expected them to be able to provide. With the insecure problem students, on the other hand, I would emphasize the affective side of our relationship, not only by showing acceptance and sympathy on the personal level (see Rogers 1969), but also by reinforcing through approval and praise any bit of acceptable linguistic ability they demonstrated. I must admit, however, that, despite my efforts, in a few cases results have been very poor indeed.

c On the **linguistic** level, the teacher is directly responsible for two major activities: the input of information and the formation of learning strategies through practice. I feel that, in the case of adults, such activities should be clearly distinguished from each other and both aimed at facilitating communication.

i By input of information I mean equipping the learners with a general frame of linguistic references, through the systematic presentation of notions, functions and vocabulary items which may best serve their immediate or foreseeable communicative needs. For example, the teacher is responsible for illustrating the logical organization of time in English, or for gradually expanding other notions – such as quantity and space – which are essential to meaningful communication. Similarly, he should explain how to make requests or suggestions at various levels of formality, as well as provide information on suffixed, prefixes or other lexical features.

I feel that adult students can only profit from this kind of cognitive approach, provided that grading and sequence are determined in terms of students' needs rather than mere 'structural difficulty'. This certainly demands greater flexibility on the part of the teacher in lesson planning. If a student, for example, actually needs a pen or wants to leave the classroom, the moment this need arises is the appropriate time to focus on how to make a request of a fellow student or to seek permission in the most suitable form, leaving aside whatever else the class may have been doing at that moment. I generally keep careful records of the material introduced, with a view to reinforcing and expanding it in conversation. I also keep an up-to-date list of notions, functions and vocabulary items in order of priority and which should be introduced as soon as an opportunity arises.

ii Practice, of course, can substantially improve the quality of communication. I am more inclined to view practice as an activity aimed at the develop-

ment of a specific skill – such as listening comprehension or reading – than as the follow up of a specific cognitive input – such as a function or a vocabulary item.

If the class is going to practise listening comprehension, for example, it seems advisable to me to ensure understanding of the single items of the recorded passage in advance. The students main concern, in fact, should be to pick up as many meaningful sounds as possible from the whole passage, by getting used to word clusters, stress, intonation and other clues. The development of the ability to decode a global message, with all its implications, would probably be hampered if the passage were chopped up and single words or structures focused on. If real communication is what we are after, practising global listening comprehension seems to have greater communicative potential than practising lexical or grammatical items.

In the case of reading, it seems to me that extensive practice should be provided in silent reading, with the purpose of achieving rapid comprehension of the message. The passage should contain only a limited number of new words and students should learn how to guess meaning in context. To this purpose I often delete some words in their reading texts from the earliest stages of learning. Learners should also be trained to identify as accurately as possible the most meaningful parts of the message and to produce an adequate synthesis of what has been read. I generally advise my students to do this kind of work by themselves, paragraph by paragraph and ask for help only when they fail to understand. In that case, I might read the passage out loud to them to provide the further clue of a meaningful intonation. The objective is to develop self-sufficiency in reading and the actual ability to read for content.

As far as practice in speaking is concerned, role-playing certainly helps the students to develop communication skills, by engaging them in interaction on a given theme when they are not yet ready for spontaneous exchanges. I generally present a situation – in which two or three students are playing themselves – and leave them free to improvise a short dialogue to be corrected by the class. I do not require students to use any specific grammatical structures or vocabulary items, nor do I have anything definite in mind when I set up the situation. It seems to me, in fact, that any activity in which the new linguistic material is introduced into well-known behaviour patterns will constitute a positive global experience for the learner. Adult students, however, often find it difficult to become involved in a situation and to internalize an assigned role. When self-consciousness deprives their performance of spontaneity real interaction does not take place, and we are left with mere verbal exercise.

At an intermediate level, I also suggest that each student give a short oral report on a topic of his choice. This activity can be considered mainly prac-

tice, because the talk is carefully prepared with the teacher in private interviews, during which outline techniques are discussed, pronunciation reviewed, security feelings built up. Although the performance is usually not as good as the rehearsals, oral reports constitute a positive communicative experience for the speaker and a good listening opportunity for the audience. Moreover, they often elicit spontaneous responses and result in a real exchange of ideas.

As for writing practice, it seems to me that it should focus both on the form and the content of the written message in English on the one hand, the students should learn paragraph structure in English, and to this end opportunities for copying and manipulating model passages should be provided. On the other hand, they should learn how to select their ideas and organize them into sentences and paragraph: this mental discipline could adequately be pursued through summary writing, which entails the choice and the reorganization of concepts.

3 To conclude, I reaffirm my conviction that the teacher can contribute in various ways to the creation of a climate conducive to real communication in a foreign language classroom. I would like to point out, moreover, that mutual communication between student and teacher in the classroom community is not only effective but also enjoyable and rewarding for the teacher himself.

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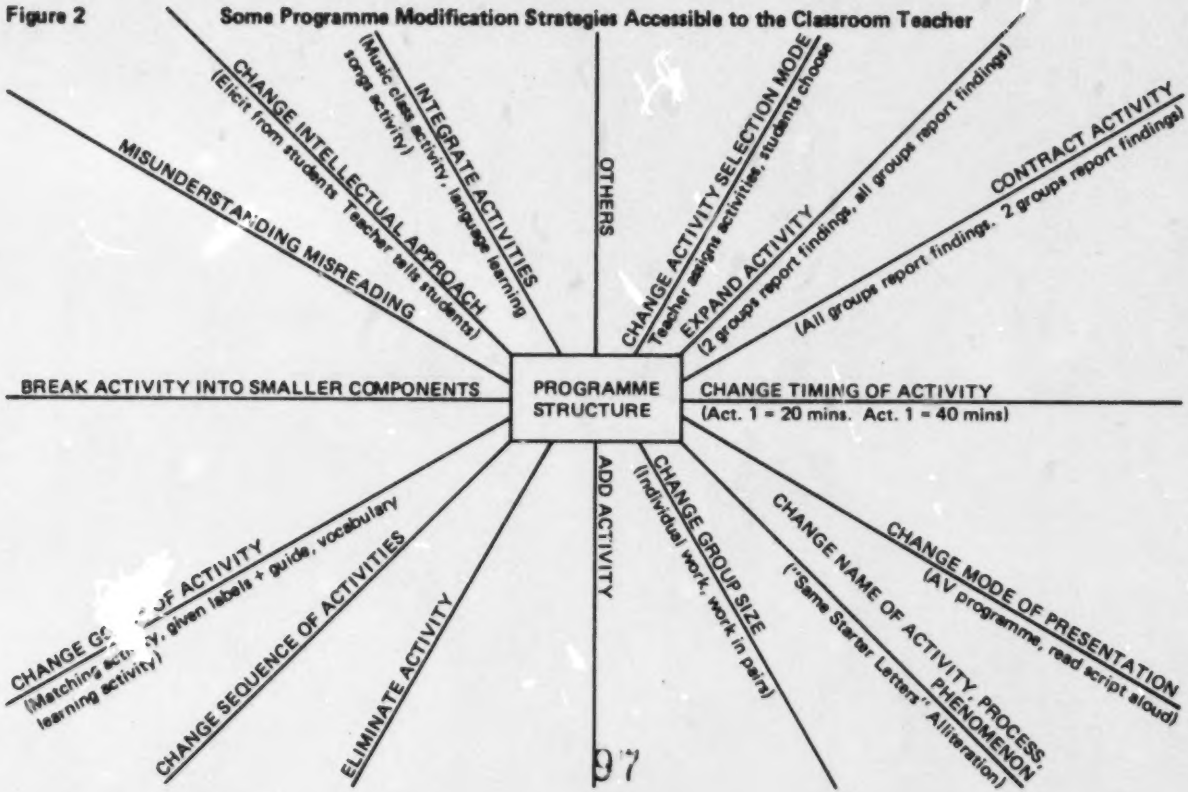
Figure 2 Some Programme Modification Strategies Accessible to the Classroom Teacher


PROGRAMME STRUCTURE
BREAK ACTIVITY INTO SMALLER COMPONENTS
CHANGE TIMING OF ACTIVITY
(Act. 1 = 20 mins. Act. 1 = 40 mins)
MISUNDERSTANDING MISREADING
CHANGE INTELLECTUAL APPROACH
(Elicit from students Teacher tells students)
INTEGRATE ACTIVITIES
(Music class activity, language learning songs activity)
OTHERS
CHANGE ACTIVITY SELECTION MODE
Teacher assigns activities, students choose
EXPAND ACTIVITY
(2 groups report findings, all groups report findings)
CONTRACT ACTIVITY
(All groups report findings. 2 groups report findings)
CHANGE GOAL OF ACTIVITY
(Matching activity, given labels + guide, vocabulary learning activity)
CHANGE SEQUENCE OF ACTIVITIES
ELIMINATE ACTIVITY
ADD ACTIVITY
CHANGE GROUP SIZE
(Individual work, work in pairs)
CHANGE NAME OF ACTIVITY, PROCESS, PHENOMENON
("Same Starter Letters", Alliteration)
CHANGE MODE OF PRESENTATION
(AV programme, read script aloud)